

THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN INDIA

by

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FOREWORD

IN 1953-54, there was still anticipation and excitement over the fact that Independence had been won and that the future lay in the hands of the Indian people themselves. The dream of that future was being spelled out in the first Five-Year Plan and in the Report of the Commission on Secondary Education, which was released for use in the workshops as a guide to what education might become in the new country which needed to declare its independence in education as it had done in politics.

We found, however, that the scars of colonialism were affecting education in many subtle ways. In spite of the significance, the vision, and the great importance of the Five Year Plan; in spite of the fact that it had been adopted by government and was being put into operation as official government policy for the development of the country, we found that it was not being studied in schools; that it was not being used as a basis for social studies instruction lest the school be accused of involvement in politics. We found that school was concerned with immediate social problems, and that "social service" was a part of many school programs. But education in citizenship, education in the current problems facing this new country as a nation tended to be avoided in schools lest the teachers be guilty of political influence.

We found further that, although headmasters were troubled by student strikes, and often complained bitterly about the students who used the strike technique learned in the war for independence and did not recognize its inappropriateness now that independence was theirs, the schools had made little curricular effort to teach the technique appropriate to independence and to democracy. Thus we were at one time thrilled and excited about the social service which schools were carrying on and the high democratic ideals which were expressed on every side, and disturbed because we found little effort to incorporate a knowledge of the responsibilities and skills which are essential to the development of democracy. There was lit-

tle or no emphasis on process — either the process of problem-solving or the process of democracy.

Where we did find schools aware of this need, however, they were doing a magnificent job. Students in these few schools showed more self-direction, more awareness of the obligations of citizens, and more actual assumption of responsibility than would be found in any school we could name within our own country. This picture of the need for developing skills and responsibilities for youth and the three or four examples we found of schools in which such skills and responsibilities were being taught very effectively, served to heighten our concern for this same problem in our own country, and to accentuate our concern for the problem in Indian education. For, although more effort has been put into solving this problem in the older democracy, it has not been satisfactorily solved, and *we are constantly reminded that democratic skills and responsibilities are never completely learned, but must be worked on continuously.*

In the ten years since our first visit to India, we have become increasingly aware of the need for commitment of young people, not only to the ideals which their country stands for, but to the processes by which these ideals are attained. We were tremendously impressed with the concept and scope of the Social Studies Syllabus as we examined some of the preliminary drafts during our stay in India in 1964-65. But while the syllabus was thrilling, we were also aware of the fact that without a great deal of teacher education it could become another subject to be mastered for examinations rather than a means of bringing the vitality of its concept into the daily political life and thinking of the young people of India.

This book breathes that needed life into the program. As we read it, we commented that we should like to put it into the hands of our own social studies teachers, for while the content and language were designed for Indian teachers, the way in which that content is used with pertinent examples to show the importance of the democratic process is most exciting. We feel sure that young teachers studying the syllabus with this most helpful exposition will indeed bring true citizenship education in India into reality. It would appear to us that this book does more to bring Indian education into the realities of India

itself than any of the other educational efforts we have observed there.

Mr. Yajnik is indeed, a master teacher, and it is our hope that in addition to his publication, he will have the opportunity to work with teachers in many parts of India in conferences to consider the significance of this type of social studies teaching.

Michigan, USA
August, 23, 1966

THEODORE RICE
Professor of Education

INTRODUCTION

WE HAVE by now quite a large number of books—and good too—on Social Studies, which do not apparently justify the addition of one more. However, there are two definite reasons which made me write this book. Most of the existing books are foreign and there is almost none which deals with the problems of teaching Social Studies in Indian schools. This book is meant to meet the needs of Indian teachers both in schools and in Training Colleges. Secondly, this book is the result of what I have thought and done in the matter of teaching the Social Studies during the last fifteen years in the Baroda Training College and, through its Extension Department, in several secondary schools. In the Training College, for several years, I used to discuss with teachers the methods of teaching History and Geography, but always separately, and often with different groups of trainees; I have always found that there is so much in common and overlapping between the two subjects and so intimate is the relationship between them that they must be brought closer to each other. It was during these years (by about 1952) that I was much impressed by J. Hemming's *Teach Them To Live* and wished to try out how far the methods of teaching and therefore the purposes of teaching a subject could be entirely changed. It was at this time that I met Prof. Rice and Mrs. Rice in the workshop and learnt my first lessons from them on the teaching of Social Studies. Fortunately, I got an opportunity soon to try out some of my 'fads' in the University Experimental School. There are several other schools also today that are experimenting on the re-organisation of the Social Studies syllabus, on projects, on new type tests and so on. This book therefore is, in a way, a collection of experiments and experiences in the field of Social Studies, and its purpose is to invite other teachers in the sharing of these experiences.

This book is more of a hand-book of practical suggestions for the classroom teacher of Social Studies and is meant to help

him in planning out his daily lessons, projects and tests, rather than a treatise on the philosophy of Social Studies. Only the basic principles of the theory have been dealt with and, that too, with the sole purpose of providing an orientation to a teacher who is too much in the rut and is not able to get out of it. The theory part of the book will certainly meet the requirements of teachers under training.

In this book there are bound to be sections that may be welcomed most by a teacher because they are very useful, and other sections that may be labelled as 'difficult for the average teacher', and still others that may be marked 'radically new and impossible'. If the book has something in it to attract the attention of all these teachers I shall certainly feel grateful to them.

I wish to assure them that every suggestion made in the book for a better teaching of Social Studies in our schools has been tried out and found useful by me and my colleagues in the several schools.

Certain statements and phrases—nay even passages, have been repeated from chapter to chapter. This has been deliberately done for the purpose of emphasis. That the teacher should be given more freedom in planning his work, that the teacher should consider his pupil more important than the syllabus, that activities should receive as much importance as subject matter, that credit should be given not only for performance in the examination but for all useful abilities or traits found in pupils, and that learning should be related to life outside the school are ideas that are new and will take time to be acceptable to teachers and schools in the programme of actual classroom teaching. It is my faith that they will be accepted, slowly but surely.

The problem before me was whether to write this book in Gujarati or in English. I preferred to write it in English so that the book could be read even outside Gujarat, and in simple English so that it could be used by even primary school teachers provided they have passed at least the secondary school leaving examination. While trying to write in easy English I had often to sacrifice the idiom but I have done this

The book contains some illustrations:- actual photographs of students' activities, or of samples of pupils' work books, charts, datelines and other sketches which may go to prove to the teacher that children can do it. The Appendix includes outlines of some projects actually carried out in schools and a list of useful books both for teachers and students.

I take this opportunity to express my thanks to my colleagues in the Faculty and teachers from the various schools—particularly the University Experimental School, the Alembic Vidyalaya, the Maharani High School for Girls and the Sayaji Girls School—who encouraged me in trying out the new techniques of teaching Social Studies and helped me with reports and photographs. I must also acknowledge here my indebtedness to the following works in particular which I have used and quoted freely in this book:

J. Hemming: *Teach Them to Live* (Heinemann)

J. Hemming: *Teaching of Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (Longmans)

Govt. of India: *Syllabus issued by the Council of Secondary Education*.

Percy Nunn: *Education: Its Data and First Principles* (Edward Arnold)

Govt. of India: *Secondary Education Commission Report*.

K. S. YAJNIK

Baroda

31 August, 1966

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CHAPTER I

NEED FOR A CHANGE

1. Shift of Emphasis

So FAR, till the other day, education in schools and colleges has been job-centred. Parents want their children to learn the rudiments of reading and writing so that they get a job; or they want them to learn medicine and engineering so that they get a better job. The attention of the teacher and the school also is then fixed on covering so-much-of the syllabus and on arranging examinations to pass or fail their pupils. The school believes that the *quantity* of the subject-matter which the pupil is expected to carry in his memory, would in itself be a power which should stand by him in future. The belief, however, has been found to be wrong.

In the first place, it is impossible for anyone to possess and carry encyclopaedic information with him, all the time. Secondly, even if it were possible, it is not worth wasting time. This is not to say that facts should not be remembered by children; rather the contrary. Facts *are* necessary in any useful study; but these are to be the basic facts, selected facts. And facts are not to be remembered for their own sake; they are the means to an end. Facts are the raw materials in the hands of the teacher and the pupils, and should be handled in such a way that something must *happen to the pupil* as a result of knowing these facts. A desirable and expected change should take place in the outlook, attitude and ability of the pupil who learns the facts; that is to say, a change must occur in the personality of the pupil. Education should change the pupil just as reading a good book or seeing a good play changes us while we may not remember it at all. The syllabus is, therefore a tool, and a useful tool (but nothing more than a tool), in the hands of the teacher for the purpose of educating his pupil. If this function and limitation of the syllabus is not still understood by teachers in schools and colleges, and if most of the teacher's time and attention is still wasted in *covering and completing* the syllabus for the purpose of preparing pupils for an examination (neglecting the personality of the pupil), it is certainly a pity.

Those teachers who realized these limitations of the syllabus advocated the case of the learner. They placed the pupil in the centre and pleaded that education should be child-centred; and that the development of the learner should be considered more important than mere covering of the syllabus. The emphasis thus shifted 'from Latin to John' as educators would put it. The development of the pupil meant development of the powers and abilities of the pupil. The powers probably referred to the intellectual powers and hence the importance of disciplines like mathematics, logic and second language.

It is not yet reliably established, however, how far the powers of an individual pupil could be carefully analysed and how far certain specific subjects of the curriculum could be associated with the development of certain abilities, say of reasoning or of appreciation. But the shifting of the emphasis from the subject matter to the learner certainly established an important principle that subjects of the curriculum and the content of each subject could be, and should be, changed according to the needs and interests of the pupil. We do not know exactly how (either through the subject matter, or the methods of teaching, or the use of better illustrative aids, or through the cumulative effect of all these), but the emphasis placed on the pupil has certainly resulted in better possibilities of his education. The pupil's importance is being recognized now. Individual differences are taken into account while handling the syllabus; methods of teaching are adopted to suit the pupil's age-group and interests; proper motivation has been considered necessary in learning. But it has also happened that the individual has often used his intellectual abilities for his own selfish ends. A doctor or an engineer or an administrator may exploit the very society in which and through which he developed his powers.

It is the task of educators, now, to see that the powers of the learner should be directed to the *social good*. Emphasis has to shift further, therefore, from the pupil to the society; or rather to the *pupil-in-society*, because there is no antithesis between the pupil and society. There need be no antithesis between the two objectives of developing the abilities of the individual and directing these powers for the social good.

Psychologists tell us that the individual is nothing apart from his environment; that the seed cannot grow unless the soil and

the climate are favourable. If we wish our young people to grow into happy, mature, and well-balanced adults, we must carefully familiarize them with their environment. This environment consists of the home, neighbourhood, state or nation and the world. We have been realizing now that we must have a well thought-out programme of training young men and women to be responsibly aware of the problems and needs of the society, and contribute their mite to its enrichment. Such a training is more necessary now, because modern society faces complex and intricate problems and it is difficult for the young citizen to think clearly, logically and sanely about these problems without any definite and deliberate training. Not the training of man, but *man-in-society* should, therefore, be the aim of education, now. True education should aim at building up right relationships between the learner and the society around him.

2. Home and School

We know that children learn by imitating the adults around them at home and in school and society. We all learn speech by imitation. There was a time, when the home was the centre of all activity. The home was the school of life where under the care and direction of father and mother, the children would learn not only the skills and crafts but the traditions of the family. Home provided easy apprenticeship to children to learn by imitation, and also an opportunity to practise and earn recognition in the eyes of adults. Even outside the home, in small village communities much was learnt, (and, is learnt even now) through apprenticeship and imitation in the smithy, at the carpenter's workshop and in the fields. Not formal examination, but social recognition and approval was enough for a boy to earn testimony of attainment in order to find his place in the community. By the age of fourteen, young boys and girls mastered many skills necessary for social living without any formal schooling, and much through their own initiative and curiosity. They acquired enough background to give them a thorough awareness of the environment, and obtained enough training to be self-reliant, active and able to take initiative and assume responsibility of living in society. In fact living itself *was* learning; school-going was necessary only to become a *man of letters*, not essential to become *man*.

Even though this is very true of most of rural India even today, the situation is fast changing. The father, once the master of the home, who knew everything pertaining to the family, now leaves home to work at a place where his son cannot follow, watch, imitate, or learn. Food and clothes are bought, not made. Instead of a rich variety of activities in and around the home, now, there is dull monotonous uniformity and division of labour, in factory or business. The child of ten finds himself lost in a world wherein men are strangers to one another. Fun and recreation were once centred in the family; but, now, people have to run after them and purchase them in the professional shows, radio programmes and cinema films. The home has ceased to be an all-providing centre. In a place like Bombay, and other large cities, the home has become only a place for shelter at night. Under these circumstances the child is deprived of the best means of 'social' education at home and in the community.

Not only is the home thus 'destroyed', but where people have moved from their home village to a large and crowded city to find jobs, the very idea of 'community' has ceased to exist; even neighbours do not know one another. Man is essentially a 'communal' animal and finds himself at home only in the community; all his satisfying activities take place in the community; he wants to belong to the community. When this community is destroyed, human life breaks down physically and morally.

Such a shift in the importance of the home and a breakdown of the community idea has thrown greater responsibility onto the school. If the school remains satisfied only with teaching the 'subjects', the child may gather much information but will remain quite ignorant of the art of living; he will not develop a sense of belonging to the community and develop those qualities of character which enable him to make a personal contribution to the community life. The primary aim of education is 'social initiation or the development of social character by drawing the individual into the community and making him aware of its collective life and ideals'.

Nothing develops the social character better than this social

* *The Content of Education*, Chapter E, p. 147, Report of the Council of Curriculum Reform (University of London Press, 1945).

experience of belonging to a community and to a place. The school and its programme of education should, therefore, deliberately plan to develop this 'sense of belonging' by slowly extending the pupil's horizon from the family and neighbourhood to the town and the district, and from the district to the State, the nation and the world. For this purpose, the school itself should be built up into a community; a community which should set up an atmosphere in which the pupil will find self-fulfilment and growth and will love to belong to it; a community in which are found the ideals of love, truth, self-sacrifice, social service and respect for the individual; a democratic community in which democratic methods are practised with conviction and faith both by pupils and teachers in the day-to-day activities of the school. In other words, the school has now to provide *a total* education to meet *all* the needs of the child a substantial part of which used to be looked after by the home and the community; it has to provide for knowledge and skills, for values and culture; it has to create and build up attitudes and a sense of belonging. All this can never be done merely as a result of teaching 'subjects' however well they may be taught. The school curriculum, therefore, has got to consist not of *subject-matter* alone but of all those *experiences* also, which are necessary for the social education of the young student. The word curriculum should thus acquire a new meaning and scope.

Without such a sense of belonging, the pupil may seek security in timid withdrawal from life, or may resort to violent aggressiveness and anti-social conduct. Education, through its programme and methods of teaching, should avoid either, and train him for friendly co-operation and working together for the common good.

Education should be what is called 'education for identification'. The pupil should be enabled through it, to identify his interests with the interests of the society. There is a school hardly forty miles away from Baroda which not only teaches subjects to its pupils but supplies seeds to the farmers of the village in which the school is situated, sprays D.D.T. for the health of its people and cattle, advises on manures to be used, helps in marketing the produce, undertakes social education, celebrates festivals for the whole village, arranges film shows

and exhibitions, and acts as liason between the local folk and the Government agencies. The school in a real sense has developed into a centre of community reconstruction; and its pupils get, through these programmes an opportunity for social contact and social initiation, for development of social character and training in citizenship. Our target in free India ought to be to build up every local community into an educational society with its centre of gravity in the school. Every school at present is a community school in the sense that it is controlled and financed by the community; but more than that, the pupils and the community should be bound together in close relationship for mutual give and take through the activities of the school. Then shall we be able to get out of mere book learning and make a beginning in the direction of real education of our pupils.

3. Life and Learning

A major defect of our school work has been that all teaching (and therefore all learning) is confined to the classroom, the textbook and the teacher. All education is 'delivered' at the desk within the four walls of the school. You can certainly come across a teacher explaining the 'cloudy sky' on the black-board. Further, knowledge is taken to be as it were the monopoly of the teacher who alone can be the source of education; or again, that education has been synonymous with covering the textbook. Pupils who did the textbook well are supposed to be properly educated and secure even scholarships and prizes. The result is that inspite of spacious buildings, rich equipment, excellent examination results and qualified staff, it is not uncommon for schools to complain of 'student indiscipline', the pupils' apathy towards learning and lack of interest in school work. This is a major complaint of our times.

This is inevitable. It only indicates that education is falling short of the needs of the times. Education of the classroom given by teachers who live in an isolated world of their own, has become unreal and divorced from real life around. The quick changes taking place in the world during the present century (described in the next section) demand a quicker grasp and adjustment on the part of individuals and institutions. Our

economic organization, our caste system and marriage institutions, our administrative set-up—everything is changing according to the needs of the times, but our education has remained the same as it was a century ago. Unless education, too, changes its outlook and methods of work, the wide gap between life and learning will persist and pupils who wish to prepare for life will not take interest in isolated school subjects. They will remain apathetic and non-co-operative towards the best efforts of their teachers. It is also true that this gap cannot be filled up by only better buildings and costly equipment; the gap could be closed only by bringing the school curriculum into closer relationship with the real world outside the classroom, by linking up the past with the present, the distant with the local, the international with the national; that is, by changing the total outlook and methods of work in the school. For a long time educationists have been telling us that education means drawing out, that is, developing what is already in the pupil. This may be true, but it is not the whole truth. Today the purpose of education should also be to draw in—to draw the outside world into the classroom and establish right relationship between the student and his environment. Because he is not taught at school to build up happy relationships between him and his environment, he runs away from it, keeps aloof, *becomes* withdrawn and aggressive, restless and suspicious, non-co-operative and unhappy. The result of such a maladjustment is a neurosis. Hundreds of our pupils live their lives stunted in spirit and capacity because of maladjustment.

4. This Different World

Even a casual observer of current events will recognize the magnitude of the struggle in which every country is involved. Old world markets have been lost and new ones are being sought. Old dependencies have been abandoned and new nations are being born. Racial friction is increasing and equality is being asserted. The right of absentee landlords to land is challenged and a redistribution of land is in process. The necessity of poverty is denied and better standards of living are being demanded. All these and many others are but symptoms of the world upheavals to which we and our country,

India, are no exception; nor can we remain unaffected by what happens even in the most distant countries and to far off peoples in Tibet, the Philippines or Belgian Congo. Education should enable pupils to realize this and face the situation as citizens of the world.

In the past, life was highly individualistic; decision-making was confined to close relationships in the home and community. The future presents a far different prospect. The individual citizen will, of course, always be the basic unit of society and the local community will remain the focal point of decision-making, but the welfare of both individuals and communities is coming to be affected more and more by policy decisions made at the society level.

The one mark of an educated man, in the modern world, is his capacity for clear thinking. The purpose of education on the intellectual side would, therefore, be to develop this capacity in pupils. This capacity is so rare at present, but has become increasingly important as the world becomes more complex. The modern world is a world of 'plural possibilities'. Everyone should, therefore, learn to make up his mind and judge issues and problems without prejudice or passion. It is easy to reason correctly in the field of physical sciences, but it is much more difficult to do so in social sciences where prejudices and passions of man are involved. Capacity for clear thinking means also capacity to recognize one's own prejudices and to discuss all social questions calmly and without an 'over' or 'under' statement. When a majority of our citizens will not receive any education beyond the secondary stage, they must learn to think straight and dispassionately at school; or they may not learn it at all and may not be able to play their part well as responsible citizens of a democracy.

The need for such training in social living was never so imperative ever before. The nineteenth century was the century of individual freedom, of laissez-faire when everyone was supposed to be able to know his own good and seek it in his own way. It was the century of great monarchs, colonial empires and exploitation. The twentieth century, however, is the century of socialism, of co-operative effort, a century of the well-being of all, a century of *Sarvodaya*. Particularly after the experience of two World Wars and under the impact of the atomic age,

SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

A good social studies programme links up the classroom studies with the society outside and introduces the young to its problems. In a real sense it becomes Education *in* and *through* and *for* the society.



Boys and girls work in groups to build a village road at one of their annual camps.



Though young, they jointly take up the responsibility of keeping their classroom clean and learn to be self-reliant.

(*Experimental School, Baroda*)

the very existence of life depends upon co-operation. The one outstanding problem of this century, therefore, is the problem of *living, or living together*, problem of mutual understanding, a problem which has thrown a great challenge to the UNESCO. UNESCO maintains that 'War begins in the minds of men'. Education will have to take up this challenge of the century and will have to revise radically its objectives and approach, its concept of the curriculum and its techniques of examination, in order to demonstrate that 'Peace too begins in the minds of men'.

5. Education for Democracy

It does not require much argument to see and show that all that is noble and fine in human civilization is due to the free use of human reason—'REASON' that is the distinguishing mark between man and beast. Free use of reason and the methods of discussion and persuasion rather than of weak obedience and force, and a search for spiritual values of truth, goodness and beauty are possible only in a state governed by the co-operative effort of free men and women. Such a state is the democratic state. Nowhere will men and women enjoy such equality of opportunity for their own development as in a democratic state. It is true that democracy has fallen in disrepute in recent years particularly after the World Wars; but then the remedy lies not in substituting it by dictatorship or any other kind of autocratic rule; the remedy lies in training citizens who would be able to choose the right sort of leaders and bring about a better social order. We often take our freedom lightly. Citizens often fail to exercise their right to vote even when important national or local issues are at stake. We sometimes see men re-elected even after they are found to be corrupt. Men in office have sometimes used power to gain selfish ends. Government attempts to liquidate political and social evils are often defeated by lack of popular support. We must be very much concerned about all this; not because it is bad but because it happens inspite of improved means of communications which make all citizens well-informed about such things. Society often appears little concerned about low

standards of public morality. Hence the need for developing a sensitivity to such dangers and a higher level of civic competence to face the dangers.

Though our education has greatly expanded since Independence, we must admit that no deliberate attempt has yet been made to educate our boys and girls for the citizenship of a democratic state. The education given to them is neither adequate nor of the right sort.* A pupil leaving school at 17 or a graduate leaving the university at 21 or 22, if properly taught, should have the necessary background of knowledge and an interest in the affairs of the world, in order to give him the opportunity of becoming a good citizen, in course of time. Unfortunately, it is claimed that any university graduate with a degree in any field, should be able to apply his powers and knowledge to the duties of citizenship. This, however, is not true. It could have been true in the past when the society was simple, its problems were less complicated and the government interfered little with the daily life of the people. But now things are different. Our political world is so complex and so difficult that it is very necessary to train men for becoming useful citizens as carefully and deliberately as for their job and profession. A man who is the highest authority on atomic energy or on Shakespeare or modern painting, may not necessarily be capable of forming a sensible opinion about the work of the United Nations, or about the Five Year Plans or about the type of men who will make able members of the Lok Sabha. In a democratic society where franchise is to be so widely held, there is great need for all citizens to understand the superiority of the democratic form of government, to be skilled in its methods, and to adhere to its principles of political morality. While it is true that an average voter will not have the mastery of details and background enough to advise the government in administration, he can certainly co-operate to build up public opinion which should influence the government policy. He may wish for a better standard of life and abolition of unemployment, improvement of education and care of public health, for national unity and international peace; he may wish for all this but may not be able to suggest exact

* *Report of the Secondary Education Commission, 1952-53, Ch. III. p. 21.*

methods and measures the government should adopt. In all such matters the voter should be able, through demonstrations, meetings, etc., to formulate public opinion which should move the government to action.

This requires also that the voter should have the capacity to choose capable representatives for public bodies and trust them well. He should not only have a clear idea of right conduct in public men, but must have the *courage* to respect integrity and ability in them. Training for democracy should not, therefore, merely mean training in exercising one's vote, but training in clear thinking, and in forming correct and sound judgment.

While the democratic ideal allows full opportunities for complete development of the individual and cultural self-expression of religious, linguistic and other groups, it also insists on a common and national citizenship; nay,—even on a common world citizenship. Among the fundamental moral qualities, therefore, a democratic citizen should develop a deep concern for the welfare of his fellowmen, in his own country and over the whole world. He must have *the will* to sink his own interests and interests of his caste and class for the sake of the common good of all. He must be ready to make sacrifices for international goodwill and co-operation.

Our great error is that education in co-operation and self-sacrifice for the good of the majority, stops somehow at the national boundary and has not gone beyond it. The world wars should now teach all that even existence (not to talk of *good life*) would be impossible if people thought and lived and fought for only narrow national boundaries. Our ideal should be to struggle for world citizenship, to subordinate self-interest to the good of the world community. Opportunities for the teacher are now many, and he should introduce his pupils to the achievements of great scientists and inventors who could succeed only as a result of co-operation, hard work and self-sacrifice; introduce them to the great work of painters, sculptors and musicians who knew no restrictions of national boundaries while developing their themes; and introduce them to the activities of such organizations as UNO, WHO, UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO, which have been doing excellent work for all irrespective of race, religion or nationality. To teach a boy to love his country does not make it impossible for him to love

his parents as well. In the same way education for world citizenship need not be a negation of patriotism or interest in local problems. Local and national civic education is neither useless nor injurious but it is certainly incomplete.

6. Wider Interests

These new requirements involve not only a drastic revision of the the topics taught but a fundamental change in teaching methods, because not only the mastery of the subject-matter but the pupil-participation in the *process* of attaining that mastery also, becomes a part of the preparation for such a citizenship. In such a scheme of work methods of learning will be as important as the material learnt. The democratic ideal rather insists that a democracy will work through procedures based on discussions, tolerance and compromise. The self-centered competitive methods now so popular in schools shall have to be replaced by social incentives and team work; by methods of persuasion rather than of force in taking decisions. And the success of the study will be measured not by the subject-matter memorized and reproduced, but by the interests developed and enthusiasm stimulated in the pupil. Even retention is sure only when true interest is aroused. The teacher should remember that in education it is the attitudes, good or bad, habits of work and enthusiasm that persist rather than mere memory of facts of the subject-matter. We must give up, therefore, the special or cultural quality of this or that 'subject' and present it in such a lively and co-ordinated way that the pupil may co-operate willingly and actively in his own education.

A cultured man in fact, is a person of varied interests, and if healthy interests are fostered they will enrich the personality of the young adolescent who is by nature interested in many things. It is by exploring different avenues of interests and activities that he can truly discover himself and begin to specialize in later years. The foundation of true character is laid through the development of healthy interests.

7. Conclusion

In short, therefore, such considerations, such a change of outlook, alone can now fulfil the objectives of sound education,

viz., that it will satisfy the needs of the pupil to understand his environment and his relations with it; that it will satisfy the need of the society for training citizens prepared to participate in facing the problems of our times; and that it will go to build up in our youths desirable and lasting attitudes. We urgently need a new outlook in education; a reassessment of the purposes and content of the curriculum in order to prepare and equip the young pupil of our school for a successful life in the modern world. No direct and deliberate training for living a satisfying life in this world is thought of by our schools at a time when society is becoming more complex. 'In the present condition of inefficient and uninspiring schools the four years of the life of a student, between the ages of 14 and 18, when his memory is most active and when his ability to do sustained intellectual work is at its highest, are largely wasted.'*

It is the claim of Social Studies as one of the school subjects that in all this task of educational reconstruction it can play a very important part: it can face the challenge and take up initiative to show the way to other subjects of the curriculum. If the teacher begins his experiment with a well thought out programme of Social Studies, he will never be disappointed.

MEANING AND SCOPE OF SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Meaning of Social Studies

THE USE of the term 'Social Studies' in Indian schools is comparatively of recent origin and it often stands only for a compendium of the subjects of History, Geography and Civics. All the three subjects are often taught separately by separate teachers and the question paper at examinations has separate sections for each. The separation of subjects has often been so complete that one may find a pupil learning history of Europe, geography of South America and administration of India, simultaneously in three different periods. One properly graded and integrated syllabus in which separate subjects of History, Geography and Civics merge has not yet attained either status or stability in our country. At the other extreme are some of the American schools where Social Studies may begin and end with a discussion of only current problems and no systematic History or Geography is taught. Such a treatment of Social Studies reduces it to a 'soft' subject in the curriculum.

Those who defend the system of separate subjects argue that it is easy for the pupil to comprehend separate subjects and for the teacher to present them, because through long tradition the subjects have become so systematized. But tradition and system are no justification for not adopting new ways of organizing the material of Social Studies. On the contrary, separate subjects have laid more stress on the content rather than on the needs of the pupil. The integrity of the subject is often lost for the sake of systematic learning. Every single subject separately lays stress on the ground to be covered and thus tends to overcrowd the syllabus. Pupils fail to see the relationship between these subjects and consequently find Social Studies dry, heavy and difficult. If at all separate subjects are to be retained in a Social Studies syllabus, the necessary condition for ensuring success of the programme would be frequent meeting of the 'subjects' specialists who will try to keep the content of each subject light and organize teaching units in a way which would help the pupils to see the relationship between them. The main bur-

den of the success, here, lies on the teacher; he can point out interrelation of the subjects only if he has a wide range of information, and is sensitive to similarities, differences and relationships.

In one integrated syllabus of Social Studies separate subjects of History, Geography or Civics completely disappear into a synthesized whole. Those teachers who are used to the teaching of separate subjects and are in a sense specialists of subjects may find such fusion of subjects rather confusing at the beginning. They will not be ready to give up established methods of approach and launch upon this new adventure. Sometimes it has also happened that because of the presence of much contemporary and current material in it, an integrated syllabus becomes sketchy and superfluous, and neglects entirely even the most significant elements of History and Geography. But these are the defects of planning and is no argument against the principles of the fusion of subjects into an integrated syllabus.

It is often forgotten that the major responsibility of Social Studies is the study of groups: institutions, states, civilizations, processes, and not of separate events or individual biographies or facts of History and Geography. Through a Social Studies programme, the pupil is expected to develop an insight into the social, political and economic organization of the different groups and also into the various steps that have led to group-cooperation.

The pupil learns about the past not for its own sake but because the present is the child of the past. The roots of the present institutions, customs and traditions have their beginning in the past. The pupil should, therefore, know the past in order to understand the present, as one should know the roots in order to understand the tree. The study begins with the family, the school, the neighbourhood; the caveman, the clan and the tribe; the wandering shepherds and settled village folks. As the pupil moves up through primary and secondary classes, he meets with more complicated and less clearly defined groups like occupational groups, armies, races, legislatures, political parties and so on. Typical scenes from the Mohenjo-daro and the early Aryan life, or from modern industrial life can lead the pupil to understand more fully how men have succeeded in co-operating. Such a study of social groups presents an unbroken

series of events and developments. Tilak and Gandhiji died, but the Congress lives on. Martin Luther and Shānkeracharya are gone but religious orders persist. The emphasis of Social Studies is rightly, therefore, on the common man and on common trends rather than on great men and famous events.

There are two distinct advantages of the fusion of subjects into one integrated syllabus; so many details of the separate subjects do not obtain a place in an integrated syllabus because they do not fit into the scheme, and thus the syllabus becomes much lighter for the pupils. Secondly, only in an integrated syllabus do the pupils begin to see the inter-relation between the subjects, and systematize the relevant materials of separate subjects into a significant synthesis, thus making the syllabus really meaningful. Otherwise the scattered and diverse elements of the different subjects are left isolated, unrelated and unco-ordinated. The Social Studies syllabus should encourage the establishment of relationships rather than raise walls between subjects. There is a strong case, therefore, in support of an integrated syllabus of Social Studies. In such a syllabus even when the diverse subjects merge and do lose their separate identity, yet they continue to play their significant part in enabling the pupil to understand the development of social institutions and their relationship to man; thus they continue to occupy their *proper* place in the school programme without exaggerating or under-rating the importance of any of them. It is true that the planning of an integrated syllabus consumes so much of the teacher's time, but it pays ample dividends in making the pupil's learning economical and interesting. It develops, besides, co-operation among specialists and stimulates them to use cognate subjects as resources. It should, therefore, be possible to include in a Social Studies syllabus which is properly integrated and carefully planned, the best features of several subjects, and incorporate into it a study of physical geography, development of time sense or the use of current problems also.

2. History and Geography — Inseparables

In order to illustrate some of the points made out above let us consider here the relationship particularly between History and Geography as part of a programme of Social Studies.

If the theme of Social Studies is the life of man in society, it is, in other words, the story of the interaction of History and Geography. Civilization began when man settled down and began to have property. With property (land) he found it difficult to move. Farmers for a long time were, therefore, the only producers and the backbone of civilization. Settlement in a country or town would be determined by geographical factors; so would be possibility of movement over the surface of the earth too. Settlement and movement, and then again settlement, are the stages through which the story of man's achievements has been built up. Movement in the early stages of human life was for finding food. But with the growth of settlements, movement meant commerce in goods as well as in ideas. Thus developed the routes and means of transport. Physical features—mountains, seas, deserts and forests—became obstacles to movement. Man, on the whole, tried to avoid obstacles by crossing rivers where they were shallow and narrow, and crossing mountains through the passes. In this way alone can we explain the building up of the city states of Greece, the movements of hordes from Central Asia into India always from the north-west, Alexander following a particular route in his campaign and crossing the Indus where he did, and Hieun Tsang and Marco Polo travelling along certain directions. Climates hot or cold and winds also affect movement in the same way and explain events of History. Queen Elizabeth is reported to have said: 'The North wind blew and the Spanish Armada was destroyed.' The route Columbus and many other explorers followed in their voyages of exploration were much determined by geographical factors. Movement, and then settlement are responsible for the development of market towns, communication centres, recreation places, industrial cities and so on. Shall we say that in this story of man's achievement, settlement represents Geography and movement, History? And that the story of man which is the theme of Social Studies is built up jointly by *both* History and Geography? If History thus is the story of civilization, then History is built on the foundations of Geography. History and Geography are thus inseparable. 'History is the drama for which Geography spreads out the stage.' A syllabus of Social Studies should try to bring out this relationship of History and Geogra-

phy. Geography should particularly undertake to explain how the stage for the drama of History has been set.

There is another sense also in which History and Geography are inseparable. A mistake, and a glaring mistake that is often made in the teaching of History and Geography, particularly Geography, is that the teacher tries to explain phenomena and events by means of 'causes'. It is easy, for example, to explain that Delhi was the capital of India in the past *because* most of the invasions then were from the north-west and Delhi the capital guarded the entrance to the fertile and rich plains of the Ganges and Gujarat. But, the East India Company had their capital in Calcutta near the sea, and in 1910 the British moved the capital to Delhi, again, when no invasions were expected from the north-west! At one stage Muhammad Tughlak moved his capital from Delhi to Daulatabad for geographical considerations (in order to find a central place to administer his vast empire); but he had to give up the project and return to Delhi. These facts are a matter of History or tradition, and cannot be explained by giving 'geographical causes'. In the same way, periodical changes of political boundaries of states cannot be explained by geographical reasons. Statements such as: India is an agricultural country; or Africa belongs to Europe; — are examples of *static* Geography and are misleading. Geography matters to us only when it is *dynamic* and keeps us aware of the changing scene in the world around. It is particularly interesting to note that the scene often changes because of the intervention of *Man*. All men, for example, under the *same* geographical environment do not act in the *same way*. We often say: 'There are forests in Germany and *therefore* the toy industry abounds there; Rajputana is a desert and *hence* nothing grows there; dwellers of mountain regions are always backward; there is no communication between the Konkan and Maharashtra *because* of the Western Ghats;' and so on. In these statements the words *because*, *hence* and *therefore*, suggest that Geography acts as a compelling force and that man *must* act or live in a particular way under certain geographical conditions. But this is not wholly true; at different levels of civilization or under political and economic pressures, man accepts the control of environment as it is, or leaves it; or else reacts quite differently, and modifies it to suit his needs. This is History. That is

how in some places man has built roads across mountains and irrigated deserts, but not across all mountains and not all deserts. That is why in the U.S.A. wild grass was replaced by wheat within a short time but not so in India. In parts of Africa, again, only grass grows and attracts game. That is how the Swiss people though mountain-dwellers are highly civilized but the Himalayan tribes are not. Man, of course, has his limitations, too, when he tries to modify the environment; he may cultivate wheat in place of temperate grass but cannot grow tea. But it is very essential to remember that man *does* exercise his freedom when he reacts to his environment. Geography merely spreads out the conditions, the stage. Man is free to take it or leave it.

It is amusing to hear, therefore, that a teacher is sometimes ready to teach History but not Geography and *vice versa*. Really speaking History and Geography should be taught by the same teacher as far as possible. What is required of a teacher is not an *expert knowledge* of one or the other but a *working knowledge of both*. This does not mean that History and Geography and Economics as separate subjects should not be taught at all. They have a place, but in the College as independent disciplines. In the school it is enough if History, Geography and other subjects together explain the story of man in society.

3. Scope of Social Studies

In Social Studies both the words 'Social,' and 'Studies' are equally important. It has to be a study, a serious and challenging study of worthwhile subject-matter, and cannot be only a casual discussion of newspaper headlines. The study will be important both for its subject-matter and for the discipline and training it imparts to the pupil as a person and citizen. Further the study has to be 'social' which should mean a study *of* society, *for* society and *through* society. Study of society means the study of the social institutions and traditions, the study of how the family, the system of caste, marriage, the system of government, and so on, have developed from the earliest times to the present day. Social Studies is the study of society in all its aspects, the family, neighbourhood, state, nation and finally the whole world. It is, thus, the study of society in both time and space.

Social Studies is again a study *for* society, that is, for the improvement of society. The study of the environment, and social institutions has not to be a study for its own sake; the study has to *RESULT IN ACTION* on the part of the individual pupil in order that he leaves a better society for the posterity than one he inherited. Here is a definite obligation the individual ought to fulfil. The first is the conservative aspect of the study, the latter is the creative aspect. The first emphasizes *knowledge* of society; the latter emphasizes action to improve society. A Social Studies programme thus, aims at two things simultaneously; at imparting to the individual pupil a correct knowledge of the social institutions in such a way that he should be encouraged to participate effectively in the various activities of society. The function of Social Studies is to enable the pupil to *know* his environment and *react* to it profitably.

Again it is through effective participation in the activities of society, that the individual trains himself and develops those skills and attitudes which are necessary for living a satisfying life in the community. This is to say that Social Studies has to be a study *through society*, that is through participation in the activities of society. Social Studies cannot be all learnt through textbooks and in the classroom. Hence the importance of outdoor work, field trips and visits to workplaces etc., in a Social Studies programme.

The function of Social Studies, in other words, is to bring the individual and his environment together in a happy relationship; the function is to reveal to the pupil where exactly he stands in point of time and space, in society; the function is to link up the present with the past, the local with the distant and the national with the international, in order that he may develop a better perspective of the world around him and begin to take a genuine interest in solving its problems. If this relationship between the pupil and his environment is not established, Social Studies will fail in its purpose. Such relationship alone can provide the pupil with proper orientation to life and can develop genuine interest in the world around him. This emphasis on relationship demonstrates the superiority of Social Studies over History and Geography.

4. Training for Citizenship

A deliberate and well thought-out programme of training in citizenship is now necessary for the children all over the world; but it is particularly necessary in a country like India where freedom is newly won, and where democracy is only a political democracy and a form of government. In the family, caste or other social organizations there is still very little of democratic equality, democratic conviction, or use of democratic procedure for making decisions through discussion and persuasion. The ideal of a secular state is a new concept that has come to us from the west. In India even after a decade of freedom and democracy there are many to whom ties of family, caste and community are much stronger than membership of a homogeneous nation; to whom religious community is more important than religion itself; in whose eyes culture is associated only with this or that race and birth is the only mark of status. The political unity and equality of treatment, in such a society, are therefore imposed from above: there is little in the mental attitude and daily conduct of its members which makes it a nation. *

In India, therefore, we need education for citizenship which should expand the narrow communal loyalties into a territorial loyalty, which should enable people to think of and work for the good of the whole country, *including their own*.

Our boys and girls should be trained to extend the old social ideals of subordinating self-interest for the sake of the family and caste, to the modern social ideals of civic sense, patriotism, co-operative progress and prosperity for all. We have only one expedient for this—education. Let us use education as an instrument for the reconstruction of 'society of our dreams'.

We can think of four important elements in the programme of training for citizenship in the case of our boys and girls. An effective citizen in the first place needs (1) **Knowledge**: knowledge and understanding of the progress man has made throughout history; knowledge of the struggle man has fought for justice and liberty; knowledge of the struggle he is still carrying on today to eradicate poverty, disease, inequality and exploitation. The Indian youth, therefore, to be effective must be able to understand and interpret those ideals and values

† Dr. Ambedkar's Speech in the Constituent Assembly: C. A. Debates, Vol. XI, No. 11, Nov. 25, 1949.

which make up 'Our Heritage'. The individual who has never tried to know and understand beyond his local and personal needs, will never be able to participate in making broad policy decisions for the country or for the world at large; he will fail to understand the forces operating in the world about him.

The second element in his training ought to be (2) **Attitude**: attitude of loyalty to the ideals which have guided our history. This attitude involves an emotional commitment to the values for which the Indian democracy stands: say for example, Ahimsa and Truth. Truth alone wins 'सत्यमेव जयते।' (Satyameva Jayate), is the motto on our national seal. But this should mean more than mere words to the student. It should be a commitment that the citizen will not only side with the truth at all times, but that he will stand by it and fight for it, wherever it is necessary. Similarly, under no circumstances, will he give up his faith in the democratic methods for achieving his objectives.

A third element flows from the second: that the pupil should develop appropriate (3) **Skills** for solving problems democratically; he should be able, for example, to see through the conflicting reports in a newspaper and find out where the truth lies; he should be able to present and press his point of view; listen and see the point of view of an opponent and should be able to discuss without damaging either the cause or good conventions. He should gradually but consciously develop mental habits that enable him to think critically and objectively about social problems facing him. He should have no prejudice, no self-interest; on the contrary he should possess an open mind and should insist on objective evidence. He should never be carried away by vested interests and propaganda, but should insist on logical conclusion based on objective evidence. Such habits of critical thinking are not a gift, but have to be consciously developed through participation in the civic problems that arise in daily life.

The fourth element in the required training is (4) **Practice**. The training received must move the student to action. It must develop in him the moral courage and the strength of will to play his part in resolving social conflicts of his day. He should, therefore, be continuously associated with social activities of one kind or another. Hence the need for Students' Councils and other associations of students through which he would learn

his first lessons in shouldering responsibility, getting along with his fellowmen and solving real problems facing him. Through the social activities the pupil will be skilled in the process of democratic participation in civic activities.

In short, if the student is to be an effective individual of the modern society his learning experiences must include (i) acquiring necessary **knowledge of facts**, facts about traditions and institutions of which he is to be a member, facts which would interest him at *his* age; (2) building up **attitudes** of loyalty to set ideals; attitudes which would bind the individual in a happy relationship to his environment; attitudes which will give him a sense of belonging in order to become a willing and effective member of the community; attitudes and outlook necessary for a satisfying personal life and healthy citizenship; (3) developing of **skills** appropriate for distinguishing truth from untruth; appropriate for sound thinking and correct judgment while discussing problems of society; (4) opportunity for **practice** of skills and attitudes acquired, for application of knowledge to new situations, for rendering service to the community and so developing habits of service; opportunity for building up those individual interests which could satisfy his natural curiosity and imagination. With these targets set before him the pupil will begin his training at home, in school and the neighbourhood; will complete it in the state and nation, and use it in the service of all, for the welfare of the world community including his own.

A society cannot become democratic in national and international affairs 'unless it is so organized as to be democratic in small things, and to give the small groups of which the great society is made up, real opportunities for democratic action'.* Social Studies as a school subject can play an important part in giving our boys and girls these real opportunities for training in democratic citizenship.

5. Social Obligation vs. Individual Growth

The pupil has to be trained to be an effective citizen, that is, to try honestly to solve the problems after understanding them; and thus contribute his mite to the making of a better world for himself and for posterity. We must train our pupils, in other

* *Report of the Secondary Education Commission*, p. 121.

words, to understand and appreciate the fascinating story of how man has developed through the ages, how man has struggled to control and use his environment, and how environment in turn, has controlled his life; how our institutions have grown out of the past, how they have undergone changes from time to time to meet the changing needs of man, and how they must continue to change many times in future. Man's struggle with his environment yesterday and today, man's use and abuse of his powers and resources, man's own progress and development in time and space, the essential unity of man's civilization in endless diversity, the interdependence of nations in all matters—economic, political and cultural—and the need for closer co-operation rather than competition—these are and ought to be the main topics of Social Studies in secondary schools. Let us hope that this knowledge imparted to our pupils through right methods will enable them to be active and intelligent members of the social institutions in whose midst they live.

A programme of school studies, while it trains the pupil for social obligations, also makes for happy individual growth. It is common knowledge that an adolescent threatened with failure and ridicule seeks shelter in aggressive behaviour. But behind this behaviour hides his timid and sensitive spirit which dreams of glory and hopes of a happy future for mankind. A Social programme, (with its emphasis on man's struggles and achievements) can help the youth more than any other subject of the curriculum to project his dreams and hopes into the world of reality. The Social Studies course presents the rare opportunity of bringing the boy or girl into direct contact with the ambitions and dreams of men and women of all ages and places, and thus provides an outlet for social feeling and emotional release necessary for healthy growth of the youth.

Further, in Social Studies, participation in activities (rather than mere reproduction of facts of information) is itself a part of the pupil's achievement. A pupil who has limited ability to reproduce memorized facts and who will be, therefore, exposed to failure in any other situation, will have opportunity to feel safe in Social Studies, if he could take part in the several activities and give proof of his interest and talents. This kind of security and protection from a series of failures and frustrations

GROUP WORK AND DISCIPLINE

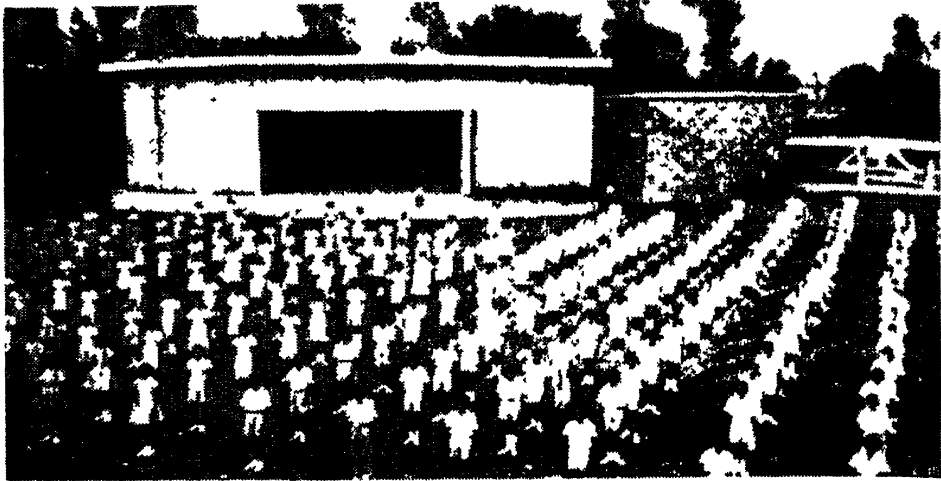
It is here that individual differences come to be recognised. Each gets a chance to learn at his own pace; each gets a chance to contribute and so save himself from frustration.



Top: Pupil leaders go round ready to help if help is asked for.
Bottom: The teacher looks on while a group is discussing their report.
Mid-left: Groups in the library looking for more facts beyond the textbook.

(Experimental School, Baroda)

GROUP WORK AND DISCIPLINE



True discipline grows out of sustained work. Group work and group exercises both are aspects of true discipline.

A planned visit to historical monuments is still another aspect of a group project and group discipline



(Alembic Vidyalaya, Baroda)

is an important factor which makes for healthy individual growth and for building of individual character.

As a matter of fact there is no antithesis between the two objectives of social obligation and individual growth in the teaching of Social Studies; both could be achieved simultaneously. A reasonable subordination of the individual to society and education in social behaviour is necessary for the security and progress of both. But the subordination of the individual should be carried out in a democratic way; that is, the individual should be taught the benefits of self-sacrifice for the sake of all and should be persuaded (not forced) into a *willing* and intelligent subordination to society.

The school and society have assumed great significance in recent years because of repeated challenges to democracy and growing demand for social security for everyone. Society on one hand is trying to extend its hold on individuals through expanding function of the State. Under modern conditions of planning and control, the State Government interferes into even social and economic matters concerning individuals and demands their co-operation. It will be the task mainly of the school so to train individuals that while they co-operate with the State they never surrender, but safeguard themselves against the domination of the State. There is more scope in a programme of Social Studies for such a training, than in any one single subject of the school curriculum.

6. Training of Character

Perhaps the supreme aim of all education is the training of the pupil's character, to which Social Studies as a subject of the school curriculum can make an important contribution. Teachers of Social Studies should select their topics and present the subject-matter in such a way that the pupils 'develop the right outlook on the world in which they are living and acquire a proper appreciation of the nature of human relationship.... History and Geography can both in their way show the mutual interdependence of nations and groups, and together with Science they can demonstrate how all great human achievements have been made possible through the silent, often unrecognized, work of numerous individuals and groups belonging to all parts

of the world. Teachers can also make their pupils realize how these great achievements call for high standards of efficiency and integrity which are the basis of good character. This is not all, however; character is not *trained* merely by *knowing about* individuals and nations, 'character is forged on the anvil of action'—of every kind of action—social, manual, moral or academic. It should be possible for the school to organize work and activities in such a way and to build up such traditions that the students will do *everything* with efficiency, integrity, discipline, co-operation and in good temper. In other words the qualities of character which the school wishes to develop should be reflected in everything that they do—in compositions they write, in speeches they make, in maps they draw and in games they play. Thus the development of character is not the work of one teacher or of one specific period of moral and religious instruction only, it is the co-operative undertaking of all teachers and is inseparably linked up with day-to-day and hour-to-hour work of the school. Healthy conduct and good character very much spring from the behaviour of the teachers themselves and from the life and atmosphere of the school community as a whole.

If the purpose of religious and moral instruction in school is to provide for healthy experiences and develop healthy attitudes towards society—attitude of helpfulness, sacrifice, selflessness, etc., Social Studies through its content and methods of teaching can achieve it much better than any other subject in the school curriculum. Social Studies does make use of religious texts, does teach about religious movements and religious leaders in order to achieve these objectives, but does not attempt to preach a particular religion in order to build up moral conduct and character.

7. A Pivotal Subject

Social Studies is often confused with an arithmetic total* of History, Geography and Civics with a sprinkling of Economics and Administration. While Social Studies draws upon all these subjects it is more than that: the emphasis in Social Studies is not on this or that *subject-matter* but on *social experience* gain-

* Refer to the *Journal of Education and Psychology*, April, 1959 for a detailed discussion of this subject.

ed through the total programme. Social Studies is concerned with developing *general* understanding of the pupil's environment.

Knowledge is one whole and there are no compartments in the mind for receiving separate knowledge of History, Geography, etc. An integrated programme of Social Studies discourages making of such compartments and, through correlation with subjects like Literature, Mathematics, Art, Craft and Science, attempts to build up a unified curriculum which is one of the marks of a successful school programme.

The benefit of correlation between Social Studies and other subjects is mutual. It is 'doubly blessed'. A Social Studies programme draws into it Literature, Mathematics, Science, Art and Crafts, and is enriched thereby. On the other hand, a broad and unified course of Social Studies serves as an excellent background for any specialized study at the college level. Social Studies lends vitality and meaning to such a study. A broad-based programme of Social Studies also provides an excellent field for the practice of basic skills such as consulting library books, interviewing resource persons, discussing in groups, drawing and interpreting diagrams, graphs and maps, taking out field trips, arranging exhibitions, examining data, preparing reports and so on; all these skills are basic to any studies at the school or college level and make for rich social experience and development of social character. Because Social Studies involves so much of outdoor work and social experience, the appeal of Social Studies is pretty high, and often works as a lever for developing similar interest in the allied subjects. A point touched off in Social Studies becomes in the hands of other subject-teachers a springboard for developing a topic in their own.

It is possible to argue that every subject of the curriculum contains in it elements which could be employed for developing social awareness and social responsibility. But such subject-matter exists only in isolated, unrelated form and its effect will be only temporary. What is required is an integrated course specially designed to build up social understanding of the pupil and give him a broad awareness of man's total environment, a course which aims at developing the outlook, attitudes and work habits that are essential for a healthy satisfying social life; such a course Social Studies alone can offer.

It is because of this unique character of Social Studies, because of its capacity to touch life at several points, that educators are encouraged to place Social Studies at the centre of the school curriculum as a pivotal subject and as a foundation of general liberal education at the school. In several foreign countries Social Studies is one of the few core subjects at the secondary level. At the S.S.C. Examination of the former Bombay State Social Studies *was* a compulsory member of the core subjects for some time, though now, unfortunately, it is not, both in the States of Maharashtra and Gujarat.

8. Summary

To summarize broadly the main points discussed in this chapter :

1. The main purpose of teaching Social Studies at the school level is to enable the pupil to understand and appreciate his social environment in such a way that he would personally feel bound up with the struggles and achievements of mankind and would be ready to make his personal contribution towards its future.
2. As the environment consists of various elements the duty of the teacher will be to draw material from History, Geography, Civics, Administration and other relevant subjects and combine them into an integrated course so that the pupil should see the inter-relatedness of all the elements of his environment.
3. A part of this social awareness may come from the pupils' home, but the school will have to plan out *consciously* a programme of social contacts, field trips, interviews, surveys and discussion of current topics—in order to provide those elements of social education which cannot be supplied by home in the modern world.
4. While Social Studies enables the pupil to carry out his obligations to society (as described in 1 above), it should contribute to his growth as a person as well; to the development in him of desirable traits such as self-reliance, initiative, adventurous outlook, courage to face new problems, world-mindedness, flexibility of mind, tolerance, clear thinking, etc. Its study should help the pupil to build up sound standards of action, enable him to enjoy

creative activity, and foster attitudes to life and learning that are appropriate for effective citizenship of a democracy and for personal happiness.

5. Such a development of social and personal qualities in the pupil is possible only through a programme of *active learning*, that is, learning not only with eyes and ears but with hands and feet also; through a programme of outdoor work and group projects. The pupil should be encouraged to work in groups and to go out like an adventurer to explore his environment in order to experience a sense of personal achievement so that he will be trained to continue willingly his education in adult life also, when the teacher will not teach or supervise him. Hence the importance of activities and sound methods in the teaching of Social Studies.
6. The training that the pupil receives through such a programme of Social Studies is not meant for living in a static society; not meant for solving problems of a particular pattern of life belonging to a particular age. The training will emphasize that human history and human experience are ever in a process of change. It is for understanding and solving the problems of his changing, dynamic society that the pupil has to be trained through the teaching of Social Studies. Hence the need for linking up the subject matter of Social Studies with current events at all stages of teaching.

A Social Studies programme is, in this way, out to educate the pupil for life in the modern world. Its approach is to the whole personality of the pupil. It attempts to provide experience in living along with knowledge. It trains the pupil to think for himself and to be self-reliant. It expects the pupil to face problems and take decisions. It extends to him all opportunities to participate in a co-operative purpose. Through all this, the Social Studies programme attempts to clarify to the pupil the basic values of life so that the choices made by him shall be good, not judged by his immediate inclinations but by the growing awareness of his participation in the adventure of mankind. The teaching of Social Studies in the new way should be, therefore, a sincere attempt to train the pupil in solving democratically the problems of *living*, and *living together*, and *living for*

worthy aims which could lift the individual above the self and demand of him both vision and sacrifice. 'To enable children to correlate in an undivided whole all their experiences in study, in recreation, in a common life and in the realms of the spirit: to cultivate in them single-mindedness, as well as like-mindedness and open-mindedness: to present to them the knowledge of material, moral and spiritual things as one and not as three: to infuse their education with coherence and continuity—from subject to subject, from work to play and from class to class; to establish an intimate relationship between what is taught and done at each of the stages of education: these are the most vital tasks ahead.'*

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER AND HIS TOOLS

It is customary to discuss the teacher in the last chapter in a book of this type; however, if the purposes set forth in the foregoing pages are to be fulfilled, it is the *teacher alone*, who can inspire and guide the pupils and create a climate and an atmosphere in which training for democratic citizenship becomes possible. In this chapter, therefore, we propose to discuss the qualifications and training of the Social Studies teacher, the way he can create a proper atmosphere in the classroom and the tools and devices he can use for effective learning on the part of pupils.

I. The Teacher

Importance : As described earlier (Chapter II) the teacher of Social Studies is not to remain satisfied with the mere *teaching* of the subject matter; he should be instrumental in developing social character of his pupils and transforming the school into a centre of social reconstruction for a new social order. The teacher's role, therefore, becomes very significant: he is his pupils' friend, philosopher and guide. He not only communicates knowledge, but interprets the social environment, reforms local community and involves his pupils in all those worthwhile activities which go to develop, in them, skills and attitudes which are essential for a happy life and effective citizenship of the modern world.

Person First, Teacher Then: The qualifications of such a Social Studies teacher are more personal than academic. He should be, for example, a person intensely human *before* he can become a good teacher. He should be immensely interested in his pupils and their activities. 'If you do not like boys and girls give up teaching,' should be his motto. He has to be an interesting person whom pupils would always like to be near. The teacher should know his children, know their likes and dislikes, their individual differences, their aptitudes and interests, and should accept them as persons; he should know their difficul-

ties and know how to work with them; he should help and inspire them to study and work.

Good Mixer : He should be a good mixer and his interests should be varied; he should be a worker in many fields and interested in a large number of activities of the community. He should be able to draw knowledge and inspiration from wide and varied experiences and books. He may have his personal likes and dislikes but he should always try to be friendly to all and prejudiced towards none. In a small village community people will go to him for information and guidance because of his superior knowledge and competence in the social field, and he should be able to satisfy them. Of all the teachers, he should understand that much more of the pupils' education takes place outside the school. Pupils are educated more in the family and the community and by themselves than by the teacher and the school. The Social Studies teacher, therefore, keeps himself well in touch with the family and the community through visits and participation in community activities. In this way he not only helps his own development, but knows the community better and makes use of the community resources more effectively, in teaching.

Zest for Knowledge : Every good teacher has zest for new knowledge, but the Social Studies teacher invariably possesses it. A teacher who cannot always remain a student cannot be a good teacher. Learning is infectious; a teacher who is himself inspired by his subject can inspire similar enthusiasm in his pupils and can make learning an exciting adventure. A teacher who does not read new books on his subject, does not keep in touch with newspapers and journals and does not draw his pupils' attention to the everyday happenings in the world around them, will fail himself and will fail his pupils too.

Skills and Attitudes : To be able to teach well a teacher needs mastery of basic social skills like efficiency in reading, writing, speaking, listening and observing. The Social Studies teacher needs this mastery all the more. Bringing to life, in the classroom, of distant places and personalities of the past, and re-creation of forgotten social life, demands of the Social Studies teacher, a gifted mind, fertile imagination and judicious use of illustrative material.

If the teacher's methods of teaching are to be democratic,

he shall have to develop a pattern of behaviour which would include pupils' co-operation in planning classroom work, mutual respect, equal opportunity for all, use of reason and not force, government by love and not by authority. The teacher both by example and precept will have to develop the classroom into a place of vitality and enthusiasm, a place of hard work and high standards, a laboratory where he and pupils work together as a team for the achievement of worthwhile ends.

Knowledge of the Subject: It is not too much to expect a thorough knowledge of the subject the teacher has to teach. But the Social Studies teacher cannot and should not be expected to have an expert knowledge of the many subjects, e.g. History, Geography, Civics, Administration, Economics, Literature, etc., with which the subject of Social Studies is connected; but he *must* have a working knowledge of the related subjects. Above all, he should not hesitate to consult his colleagues (particularly the Science, Art and Literature teachers), take their assistance and learn from them when necessary. He should possess a quick and inquiring mind.

The Teacher's Philosophy: Every teacher must have his philosophy of education. The Social Studies teacher must have in addition, a social philosophy. He should be able to bind the various aims of teaching Social Studies (described in Chapter II) in close relationship. Citizenship for example cannot be divorced from other aims of education such as the health of body and mind, worthy use of leisure or vocational efficiency. If this be so, the Social Studies teacher will have to be always ready to co-operate with his colleagues so that all the teachers work in co-operation to train their pupils for healthy life and worthy citizenship. A teacher's philosophy of education should enable him to set up distant targets of training every generation to be wiser and more human than the earlier one. His social philosophy should help him to organize his attitudes and values. He should be able to locate the areas of conflict in the field of human relationships and should be able to find his own relative position regarding the issues. Between heredity and environment, for example, he may take several positions: he may argue that both are exclusive of each other and that there is no conflict between them; or he may lay more stress on heredity as compared with environment; or he may recognize the in-

fluence of both heredity and environment and give the two their due importance. Take another instance: between freedom and authority, if the teacher had more faith in authority, his relations with his pupils will be coloured by his own prerogatives. Between intellect and emotions, if the teacher were inclined in favour of intellect, he may neglect the training of emotions and work for the training of intellect alone. Such issues, therefore, raise the need for examining the social philosophy of the Social Studies teacher, because the vitality and direction of his teaching will be much determined by his own attitudes and convictions.

The Teacher's Prejudices: In his attitudes towards peoples and problems in the world around, in his techniques of discussion or taking decisions, he should be a model for his pupils to imitate. When the teacher, because of his maturity, experience and knowledge, has great power of suggestion what is the guarantee that the Social Studies teacher will not convey his own likes and dislikes, his own prejudices and political affiliations to his pupils? Every sane person would agree that the teacher is also a human being and is bound to have his own prejudices and political news: there can be no rule that the teacher should not have any political affiliations. It is equally true that the teacher should never convert the school into a political camp. The purposes of the school is educational, not political, and therefore, it should remain above all politics. If the school becomes an agency of propaganda for this or that political party, it would be difficult for parents to send their children to that school.

This is not to say, however, that political questions or controversial questions should not be discussed in the classroom at all. Politics could be discussed, and should be discussed but only in an academic spirit, and the outside world should never be given grounds to feel that the school holds certain political views. The teacher through his attitude and method of work should develop an atmosphere of impartiality and integrity, and defend at all costs the democratic character of the school. The teacher should never forget that Social Studies provides a social situation in which he and the pupils are explorers *together*. The teacher's aim should be to *interpret*, never to indoctrinate.

Any attempt on the part of the teacher to 'sell' a point of view, will spoil the relationship of trust between them.

The teacher's task is really difficult, even if the teacher does not directly convey his bias to the pupils; indirectly in his day-to-day lessons and classwork, he is bound to influence them. His likes and dislikes — social or political — are sure to be communicated unconsciously to his pupils. The teacher's personality is bound to leave a stamp on the mode of thinking and behaving of his pupils. On the contrary, a teacher who eliminates all bias from teaching, eliminates life and personality: really good teaching is impossible without bias. Again, the world outside the school is full of bias and propaganda and is bound to influence the pupils adversely. A teacher who does not discuss controversial questions in the classroom sends out his pupils into the world, defenceless against its dangerous propaganda. The teacher, therefore, had better take up courage and face the situation. It would do the pupils no harm, nay, it would do them all good, if the teacher takes his class into confidence, encourages his pupils to express freely their opinion, teaches them to study the *pros* and *cons* of a case and trains them to tolerate differing viewpoints. Above all, the teacher will do well to sum up the discussion like a judge and never take sides like a pleader.* Because in all this the purpose of the teacher is not to carry the class over to a particular opinion; but to show them that no one side possesses the whole truth, and that wisdom lies in discerning truth in a mass of conflicting opinions, and drawing conclusions after weighing evidence. The teacher's suggestive power and influence can thus be profitably used for building up a critical truth-seeking habit without which man's mind would be everywhere in chains. Teacher's own freedom of thinking and his manner of imparting judgments will be *caught* by his pupils, thus making the teacher's task at once most difficult and most important.

Think Sanely: One of the purposes of Social Studies teaching is to enable pupils to think clearly and decide sanely. But when the inventions of science such as radio and printing are employed for propaganda rather than for building up sound public opinion, the role of the Social Studies teacher

* See Appendix: Discussion on Students' Strike

becomes really important. The teacher cannot keep his pupils all the time in a controlled environment. To enable the pupils to distinguish propaganda from truth and to train them to fight for truth at any cost, are two essential elements of the teaching of Social Studies which cannot be easily achieved by formal lessons on the subject matter; these elements could be built up into the training of the young pupil only patiently and consciously by a sincere teacher through discussion, criticism and example.* Himself steeped in the best traditions of his subject, he must see that by inspiration, suggestion and criticism, those traditions are revealed to the young inquirer and are allowed to make their appeal to him. He will be thus an idea-carrier between the great world and the school microcosm.

Important Qualities: After studying over a hundred classroom situations, Edward Payson Smith concluded that some of the most important desirable qualities in superior teachers of Social Studies are: impartiality, sympathy, an imperative mind, culture, curiosity, dramatic instinct, balance, vigorous personality, ability to inspire confidence and loyalty to ideals.

Most of these qualities should be a part of the personality of the teacher, and others have to be consciously built into his education and training at a teachers' college.

Loyalty to Ideals: The Social Studies teacher, for example, must have full knowledge of the Indian way of life and the ideals of democracy; more than that he must know how education can be used as an instrument of extending these ideals from the classroom to other fields of life. The teacher should be trained to lead his pupils constantly to apply these ideals to their daily lives and in their work in the classroom. Every classroom should be a living example of democracy in action.**

Social Structure: The teacher of Social Studies should particularly bear in mind that the social structure is never static, and therefore his methods and outlook should ever remain plastic. The teacher, therefore, should be a 'man of the world' and not bury himself in a mass of books, syllabuses, and time-

* Nunn, Sir Percy: *Education, Its Data and First Principles*, Chap. VIII, pp. 109-110.

** See *Atmosphere* below.

tables, and keep away from the man in the street. The Social Studies teacher should frequent the market-place and discover his own blind spots, mental and social. He must recognise that many of his pupils live outside the school hours in an environment which is totally different from his own. Their vocabulary, therefore, their way of thinking, their attitude to certain social problems, their scale of values are bound to be very different from his own. The Social Studies teacher will fail miserably in his task if he fails to understand the social background of his pupils and appreciate their limitations. He should always be ready to vary his methods to suit his pupils' needs and should always be ready to try out new ideas and open up new frontiers of knowledge and approach. The teacher should understand that any method however good can become boring both for the teacher and the taught if it is repeated in the same way, day after day, and year after year.

Whose Responsibility? The task of the Social Studies teacher is really great and his difficulties are many. He has little status in the society and is economically strained. His influence over his pupils is confined only to a few hours of school, and assistance or encouragement from the management is negligible. These difficulties are all the greater if the atmosphere and traditions of the school are remote from the affairs of the world, if the gulf between life and learning is wider. The managements of the school and the teachers' college both have great responsibility to discharge in this regard. If the management cannot pay him generously it should at least trust him, respect him, allow him freedom to plan, teach and try out*, and provide those physical facilities in the form of work-room and equipment** which should make satisfactory teaching of Social Studies possible in school. Teachers, like judges, may be carefully recruited, but after appointment should always be trusted. The teacher on his part should, however, remember that freedom is never given; it cannot be bestowed by the management, nor can it be permanently guaranteed to an undeserving teacher. Freedom has to be WON: won by study, good intentions, and professional competence. Freedom

* *Secondary Education Commission Report, Government of India, pp. 224.*

** Discussed later in this Chapter.

should be the result of a hard won Right for the teacher who has proved his capacity to handle it properly. Freedom never goes to the teacher who is lacking in social consciousness, courage and competence.

The responsibility of the teachers' college is greater still. The right training of a teacher is not to end in a number of practice lessons mechanically given or in learning merely the 'tricks of the trade' through reading a few books and 'notes' on psychology and methods; the training should bring about a desired change in his relationship with pupils, in his attitudes to his task of teaching and in his competence to be a model for the class to imitate. The teachers' college may have to change radically its outlook, programmes and methods of training. In its day-to-day work of training the teachers it will have to lay stress on freedom, respect for the teacher, right relationships and democratic methods. Even after the training is over, the college should extend opportunities for teachers to improve the quality of their teaching and grow in competence by reading recent publications, attending conferences and participating in workshops, by travel and research. The work of the Extension Departments in recent years, is a healthy beginning in this direction.

Let us now turn to a discussion of the school atmosphere which immensely helps the teacher in his difficult task of teaching the Social Studies.

2. The School Atmosphere

What Is It? A healthy school atmosphere is never automatically created; it has to be consciously built up through effort; it is not the work of one teacher, but should be the co-operative effort of all the teachers of the school; it cannot be 'established' by orders of the headmaster, but can be developed slowly and gradually over a long period through the teacher's relations with the pupils and the latter's activities in the school.

The Teacher's Informality: Teachers can build up happy relations with their pupils at least in two ways: first by accepting their pupils as they are, and secondly, by always finding time for informal and friendly meetings and conversation

with their pupils outside the school. The good teacher must begin by creating an impression in the minds of his pupils that he is interested in every one of them and sincerely wants to help them. If the teacher tries to know and understand the difficulties of every individual pupil, he will not reject him but sympathise with him. This understanding or sympathy increases through more and more informal meetings and conversations outside the class-room, in the street, in the market-place and during excursions. A cheerful friendly greeting when he meets his pupils, or an incidental conversation on topics other than class work (such as a cricket match, film, exhibition or circus that is on in the town, a celebration in the community, daily news item, etc.) will not only go to build up happy friendly relations between the teacher and his pupils but would encourage the latter to be frank with the teacher, even to speak freely to him about their personal problems and so prepare ground for constructive discipline and co-operation in studies. This happy relationship between the teacher and his pupils can be further strengthened by resorting to co-operative planning of school studies* and allowing pupils places of responsibility in the school activities. To the Greeks direct democracy meant more opportunities to many to participate actively in the administration of the State. It is said that one out of every five Greek citizens was actively connected with the task of preserving democracy. The school, in the same way, should try to associate larger number of students with those school activities which help to keep up and promote democratic atmosphere in the school. An interesting account of a few of such activities which support and help to build up democratic school atmosphere is given below:

Democratic Activities : (i) School Committees : A particular school has tried to associate with its various activities, about 150 students out of a total strength of 450, through its fifteen committees of about ten students each. Some of these committees look after (a) Morning Assembly, (b) reviewing of periodicals and new books, (c) Daily News Bulletin, (d) weather reports, (e) sports and games, (f) celebrations of the year, (g) excursions, (h) the Science Club, (i) Co-operative Store,

* For co-operative planning of studies, refer to Chapter VII; The Project-Way in Social Studies.

(j) Boys' Own Fund (which is in fact the Poor Boys' Fund), (k) School Broadcasts Service, and so on. The Parliament of the school is called the Samiti which co-ordinates the work of the various committees and plans new activities. The members of the SAMITI are all elected by the SABHA, the total school population, at the rate of one for every ten students of a class. The Samiti has its own elected President and Secretaries and meets at least once every month (generally the last Saturday). The Samiti and the other committees with their activities throughout the year have been successful in keeping a large number of students aware of the fact that in the school it is *they who matter*. They have been instrumental in keeping democracy alive.

(ii) School Assembly : The morning Assembly starts with a short prayer presented by every class in rotation to the accompaniment of music. The prayer is followed by 'Reading a Page from the Lives of the Great' also shared by every class during the course of the week and is done in Gujarati, Hindi and English. Then are read out reviews of new books and periodicals, again prepared by students. For all these three items students who are not able to shine in studies or are shy by temperament but have a talent and enthusiasm to do something, are given preference and encouraged by the teachers in charge. A file is maintained of all the readings and reviews and it is used by students as valuable reference material for writing essays, debates, etc., if and when the need arises. Students who participate in these activities are other than those who constitute the committees, and, in this way, about another hundred and fifty of the school population are associated with school work and given a chance to stand out in front of the whole Assembly. This has not only influenced their attitude to school work, but has improved their skills in reading, writing, singing and presenting. Notices are not circulated and are not allowed to disturb the classes at work; instead all announcements are made in the Assembly, thus almost compelling all students not to be late for the Assembly. The session lasts for fifteen minutes and ends with the invocation*: 'Let us

* सह नावतु । सह नौ भुनक्तु । सद् वीर्यं कर्त्तव्यम् । तेजस्विनावधीतमस्तु मा विद्विषावहे ॥

DEMOCRACY IN ACTION

Children learn democracy only by practising it. Student Council gives an opportunity to learn its vocabulary and undertake its responsibility.



Top Left , Waiting to vote; *right* : counting of votes; *Middle* ; The new Council 'Samiti' is introduced to the Assembly 'Sabha'. *bottom* : Samiti meeting once every month to transact business.

(Experimental School, Baroda)

live, work and enjoy together. Let our studies be bright; let us not be jealous of one another'. And so the pupils disperse and go to their class-rooms for the daily lessons. The Assembly session is repeated in the evening, only for five minutes, and is used for stock-taking; any interesting activity (projects, exhibitions, visits, etc.) undertaken or completed by a class, or any individual achievement in music, drawing, clay-work or on the play-ground is reported to the Assembly and receives its due applause from the SABHA. The evening session ends with the school song which is usually sung at all school functions.*

(iii) News Service: A summary of daily news is read out in the Assembly and then put up on the bulletin board of the Assembly by another group of students called the School News Service (SNS). News has to be collected from newspapers and the radio; it has to be edited and presented in such a way that all relevant and important items are covered within the time limit. Students come from various parts of the town and bring news from farm, factory and business. All that also gets into the bulletin. Weather news covers temperature, humidity, rain, storms, floods, earth-quakes and damage done to crops, life and roads. Emphasis is more on social rather than political news: Celebration of national and other festivals, progress of the Plans, work of the Parliament in session, local news, new discoveries in Science and Archaeology and such other items get a priority in the school news bulletin over politics and party affairs.

At the same time newspaper cuttings, cartoons, maps, etc., from newspapers and journals are displayed on a large (4' x 8') outline map of the world drawn on a cork sheet.

The news bulletin and the map-work, besides giving important training in useful skills and proper attitudes, help to bring the outside world to life for the student in such a way that he feels concerned over it and is thus instrumental in developing in him living contact with the world around. He is led to understand that life around him is always busy,

* Which means: "We are the proud students of the school. We shall always hold high the torch of learning and never behave in a way which may spoil the good name of our family, school and nation."

changing and interdependent; that it is a continuous process of growth, decay and development; and that the activities of the world and the school are closely inter-related parts of that process.

When new cuttings come up, the old ones (along with the bulletins) go into a file and again form important reference material for the discussion of current problems*. The file is used also for the preparation of monthly reviews of weather and other features for the School Broadcasting Service (SBS) arranged on the last Saturday of every month and lasts for one hour.

The SBS programme consists of a radio drama, songs, news review, and (the most important thing) a monthly review of the activities of the school in arts and crafts, on the playground, in the kitchen-garden, and in the matter of debates, exhibitions and visits. The school news review gives social recognition to the achievements of classes and individuals and keeps the whole school well-informed about things happening in the institution.

(iv) Brain Trust: The school has also organized a system of Brains Trust. The school believes that every student however dull he may be in studies, is an expert in his own line; and that his expert knowledge HAS its use in the school and outside it.

Sometimes students possess abilities and interests wholly unsuspected. One may be an expert in radio, another in electric fittings, a third in carpentry or smithy, a girl in kitchen-gardening, embroidery or preparation of food. Quite often a student is poor at studies but has some special knowledge, waiting for a social recognition and encouragement. These students with special interests and expert knowledge are organized periodically into a Brain Trust. The school has found that senior students because of their maturity and wider range of experience make better 'brains' than the juniors. These 'brains' are invited occasionally to answer questions at Brain Trust Programmes or answer questions from the Question Box opened every week-end, and also to work as Information Bu-

* The author saw the files on Reorganisation of States, Progress of the Plans and so on.

reau for the school population, which often consults them in the matter of their projects, excursions, etc.

Cases have been reported in which 'specialists' who had no place in class studies, at one time, often received a fresh encouragement through social recognition, to improve their studies. These special interests represent the links which the student has forged with the outside world, and the wise school has given him an opportunity to tie up his interests properly with the school life. A school that rejects these interests rejects the students as persons; and then the students reject the school and become 'outlaws' and 'problems'. In the Brain Trust, again, is an opportunity for both teachers and students to know that knowledge is not the monopoly of any one person, not even of the teacher; that knowledge cannot be acquired only through classroom lessons and textbooks; that every one has a contribution to make to the advancement of knowledge; and that civilisation has been attained only as a result of every one lending his mind out to his fellowmen.

These few illustrations picked up from the life of a school will serve as samples to show how such activities could be organized in every school without much cost and difficulty, and how such activities can become an integral part of a democratic school atmosphere.

3. The Social Studies Classroom

The Social Studies class-room specially equipped for the teaching of Social Studies is of great help to the teacher both in maintaining a proper atmosphere and in making his teaching more effective. The class-room is a 'laboratory' with all the necessary equipment near at hand. The following points may, therefore, be considered useful in building up a good Social Studies class-room:

(a) The class-room should be so painted and arranged that it should provide an inviting and stimulating atmosphere. Informal arrangement of furniture or display gives an impression to the visitor that something interesting is happening in that room. It should look like a place where one is expected to do things, rather than like a place where one is asked to receive formal lessons.

(b) A room about 25' × 30' with an open gallery in a corner for observation of the sun and the sky, will make a convenient Social Studies class-room. With a proper arrangement for ventilation and light (about seven feet from the floor level), the wall space could be utilized for display of the black board, bulletin board, models, maps and book shelves.

(c) Sitting arrangement should make for comfort health and efficiency of the pupils. It is better that sitting units — individual desks, or dual desks or tables and chairs — are movable and easy to rearrange for a variety of purposes: for the teacher's lessons, or group work, or construction work of all kinds. Furniture should also include storage facilities for the teacher's and pupils' books, pictures, globes and maps. The room should reserve (or provide at least in the corridor) space for show-cases where pupil's work (pictures, graphs and models) and other collections could be displayed from time to time. A permanent projection screen could be fixed (above the black-board), which can be easily lowered for projection work any time. The windows should be provided with dark curtains. Similarly a permanent channel railing with sliding hooks can be fixed along the blackboard wall for hanging maps, pictures or graphs during teaching. In the absence of railing even a pair of strings and cloth-pins will serve the purpose.

(d) No room however complete with furniture and equipment will by itself make a perfect place for the proper study of Social Studies. The class-room must be extended by the wise teacher into the world outside, as far as he and his pupils can go, as a result of, visits and all kinds of community contacts. He must understand that all Social Studies cannot be taught inside the class-room, with the help of the text-book and by the teacher alone. Living and frequent contacts with the outside world will alone justify the purpose of the special room for Social Studies.

4. Equipment

More important than the problem of room and storage is perhaps the problem of using the equipment which the school possesses. Often the projector, radio and tape recorder are

meant for show rather than for use; the maps and models displayed are covered with dust and are rarely used; and the books and maps are not of the right kind which the pupils could consult in their day-to-day work. The problem of obtaining the right kind of equipment and putting it to maximum use in the day-to-day teaching is a major problem in schools where funds are limited and needs are many.

Blackboard: Perhaps the most important yet the cheapest tool of the teacher is the black board. The black board is the 'kinema of the class-room'. According to an old Chinese proverb, 'One seeing is worth a hundred hearings'. The black board gives the teacher an opportunity to minimize his telling and explain his point easily by means of a sketch on the black board. A good Social Studies teacher has few lessons in which he will not use the black board. The teacher will use it to develop a map or a graph or a dateline while teaching, or to build up a summary of the lesson. Occasional and judicious use of coloured chalk presents pleasing contracts on the black board and emphasizes the main points of the lesson. The teacher, therefore, has to write clearly and quickly and if necessary should have sufficient practice in black board work.

Bulletin Board: Another thing is the Bulletin Board on which could be displayed relevant cuttings and pictures collected by pupils from magazines and newspapers. Maps, pictures, cartoons, newspaper reports on topics done or in progress in the class-room can be displayed on the bulletin board each with a caption or study questions for pupils.

Pictures, Slides and Film-Strips: In the large group of illustrative material available for the teaching of Social Studies pictures, slides, film-strips, charts and graphs occupy a unique place; they are relatively cheap, can be easily stored, and effectively used for teaching. While small pictures, slides and strips can be displayed on the bulletin board, or projected on the screen, large pictures in bold outlines, clear details and attractive colours, will make excellent illustrations for class-room lessons. The teacher should be careful enough to select the right type of picture or strip and USE it, not merely SHOW it; ask directive questions and tell the class what to look for in the picture or strip.

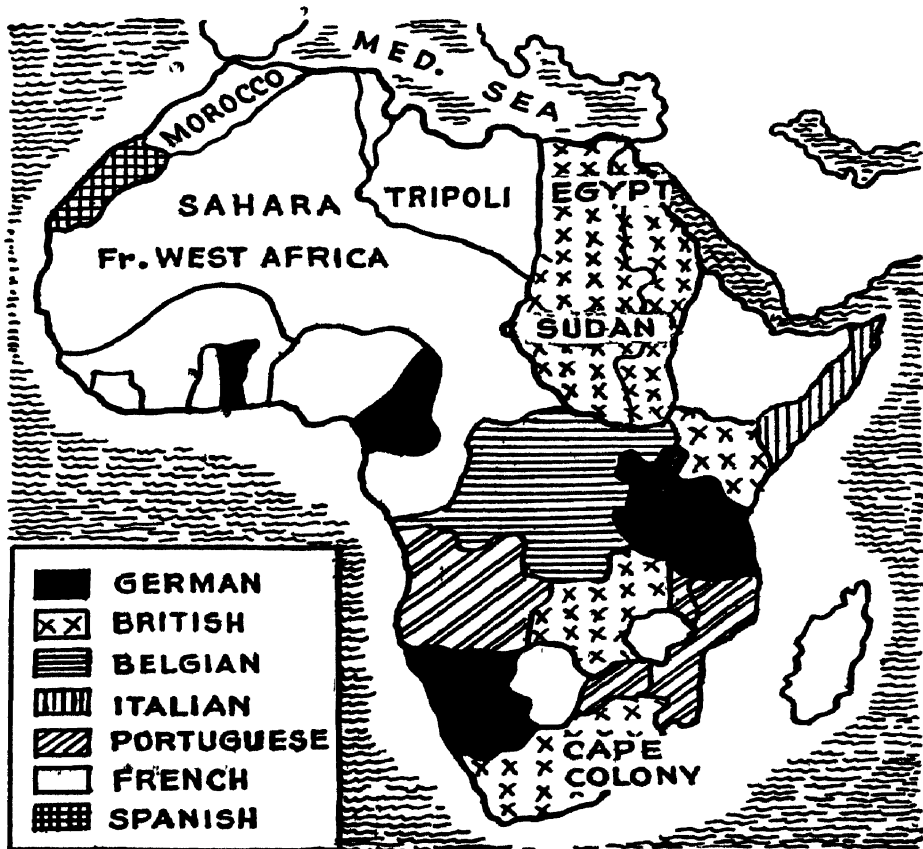
Film: Film has a distinct advantage over a picture, chart

or film-strip; a picture is steady whereas a film shows action and provides excellent motivation by extending the pupils' range of experience. Far off farms and deserts, snow-covered mountains and burning volcanoes, family life of Eskimos or forgotten conferences of Napoleon can be recreated in the class-room through the medium of the film. The film, however, is no substitute for a picture or a film-strip: both have their distinct uses. The film shows movement very well (as in the case of blood circulation), but when a situation is to be closely studied or parts of an animal, plant or machine are to be observed, a picture is superior to a film. Slides, film-strips and films — all require projectors but the film projector is costly. A wise teacher, therefore, should use his limited funds on other aids rather than on a film-projector or tape recorder.

Tape Recorder: Tape recorder is very much like the film for providing motivation. Actual conversations, voices of birds and animals, musical programmes and school broadcast talks can be preserved in the tape and reproduced as and when required in the course of a lesson. The programme could be repeated as often as the class likes and can encourage lively discussion on its various aspects. By no means, however, should the teacher feel that audio-visual aids mean only the projector and tape recorder; those who know how to use the black board, pictures, laboratory and excursions effectively, are the teachers who have a claim to ask for the film projector and tape recorder.

Maps and Globes: Maps are like books written in symbols and compel one to learn their language before they could be used profitably. But maps are like pictures and condense the whole situation which may be too large to be seen and comprehended by the naked eye directly: e. g., the shape of a country, or course of a river or the nature of a harbour. With the use of colours and different symbols and shades a map can at once show several things and point out their relationships, e. g., between climate and vegetation or between physical features and march of armies.

As pointed out earlier however pupils must be trained well in the language of the maps, its symbols and colours. Atlases, historical and geographical, should, therefore, form a necessary equipment of a pupil of Social Studies. Through as-



*Such maps carefully used can train pupils in the use of
Symbols and reading of maps*

signments and exercises the Social Studies teacher should try to train his pupils in the difficult but important skill of reading, interpreting and drawing maps and sketches.

Globes are as important as maps and have specific uses. Just as films can be no substitute for pictures, so also globes and maps are no substitutes for each other: they are rather complementary. The map is flat and summarizes large areas well on its surface; but a flat map fails to convey the roundness of the earth or correct shape, area and directions. On the Mercator's Projection, for example, Greenland looks larger than South America, and a pupil fails to grasp that Russia is a very close neighbour of the U.S.A. in Alaska. The globe is

a combination of a model and a map. This map with a curved surface is indispensable wherever the round earth is referred to in the lesson. The black globe, like the black-board can be used with a chalk-stick effectively for explaining latitude, longitude, directions, areas, etc., at all stages of school studies.

Models and Specimens: Models are more real than pictures; a picture is flat but the model resembles the original and can be viewed from all sides. That it can be touched and handled makes great difference to the pupil. The pupil can open up the bosom of the earth and see the oil and coal deposits, can enter the equatorial forests or can sit with the Eskimos in their igloo, with the help of a model. Models of important races, or ancient arms, buildings and utensils are very important as teaching aids. Making simple models, too, during projects can become a delightful activity for children. Models, however, require both funds and storage facilities.

Specimens: Stamps, coins, shells, pebbles, minerals, cereals, fibres, plants, nests, etc., have great advantage over pictures, films and models in that they *ARE A REALITY* and can become a special contribution of the pupils. Pupils should be encouraged to collect such specimens and the school should provide facility for display and storage either in the Social Studies class-room or even in the corridor. In this way can be built up a Social Studies museum. Visits to the nearby museum will always be welcome by pupils both for illuminating their lessons and in the development of their own Social Studies museum.

Field Trips and Visits: Any aids, it is truly said, will be only a poor substitute for actual direct experience through visits and field-trips. No descriptions, films, pictures or models can better explain the busy market, the running river, the cotton picking in the farm or the Parliament at work — than actual visits to these places. Wherever it is possible (within limitations of time, cost and distance) such visits for direct experience and study should obtain top priority. Personal experience is the most powerful teacher in the school and in life outside it. Pupils' activities, students' councils, local surveys and contacts with the community are all meant to promote direct experience. But, a good teacher will understand

the three important limitations of direct studies : firstly, all experiences are not useful and the teacher will have to be selective. Secondly, all experiences are not within reach of pupils (e.g., seeing the Himalayas or visiting the Congo forests) and they will be rather happy with films reproducing these topics in the classroom; thirdly, the Parliament Session cannot be repeated, or birds once observed cannot be called back — whereas the film can repeat these scenes and is more useful for purposes of study. Besides, the world has become so complex; and every individual to be an effective citizen must train himself to learn from newspapers, the radio and books, also. We often learn more from these sources than from direct experience, and, therefore, we should never neglect them.

Books : If we were to point out only one reason for lack of pupils interest in studies, it is their inability to use books of all kinds profitably. It is one of the basic skills and has to be developed carefully and patiently by every teacher before any subject could be taught successfully. Books are a single source of so much of a pupils' education, and are therefore most important. Training in consulting books is the foundation of self-study and promotes the hobby of reading for joy and recreation. The teacher of Social Studies has to collect proper books for his pupils and make them easily available for use, at any time. He should invite the attention of the class to relevant portions when he is discussing topics, and should encourage them to prepare and present reviews of new books which are added to his library from time to time. Besides the central school library, the class should have its own small library of textbooks, supplementary books and reference books replaced from time to time as the topic changes.

Summary

All said and done, the Social Studies teacher should never forget that all these are *aids* to teaching and are no substitutes for teaching; that they are his tools and HE has to decide from time to time how best he can use them in the important task of educating his pupils.

Social Studies is both a challenge and an opportunity: challenge to one who wants to rest only with explaining away

the textbooks, because Social Studies is much more than that: an opportunity to him who wants to grow along with his class and wants to influence his pupils. As Dr. Radhakrishnan* once remarked: A teacher CAN influence his pupils and he must, of course, for the social good. The teacher, however, should not be impatient to influence his pupils. He must remember that there can be many points of view, and a liberal consideration of them all is likely to do more good than opposing those views which do not coincide with his own. He should realise that Social Studies provides social situations in which it is dangerous to generalize hurriedly and preach dogmatically. He should understand that in Social Studies the teacher and pupils are exploring together into a dynamic, changing environment. State boundaries are changing, river courses are changing; production, distribution, exports, imports, are all changing at short notice. Even rainfall, crops and forms of government have changed. Our attitude to marriage, caste, religion is also changing under the impact of our political and economic life. All this change the Social Studies teacher has to take note of and bring it to bear upon the studies of his pupils.

* At the Silver Jubilee Celebrations of the Faculty of Education and Psychology, Baroda University, Baroda.

PRINCIPLES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES SYLLABUS

1. The Topics

THE SYLLABUS of Social Studies for Secondary school classes in India should include at least the following six topics in which different subjects are represented but lose their boundaries as independent subjects:

- (i) The study may begin with the social life of the pupil's own locality; his own village, town, district and State; its historical and geographical background and functioning of its institutions and its administrative set-up; how all this affects the life of the pupil, and what part the pupil can play in the working of the different institutions.
- (ii) A study of the pupil's locality must lead to a similar study of the social life of his country, India: how communities live in different parts of the country in relation to their historical and geographical background; a broad survey of Indian civilization and nationalism against a background of world events can be given here.
- (iii) A study of the social life and organization of the major communities of the world could be then presented by way of comparison and contrast with life in India; particularly India's neighbours and the Commonwealth countries.
- (iv) A general survey of the growth of modern industrial society (after 1857) and the development of democratic ways of life must be done; as a part of this may be studied discoveries and inventions, progress of science and technology; social implications of this progress in the spread of knowledge and learning, on disease and comfort, on welding the world together with different means of communications, etc.
- (v) Hence a study of the problems of the modern world (against a background study of sections i. to iv above);

problems of food and health; of living together; of government; problems of world peace. Here is a chance and the need to encourage the pupils² in the use of newspapers and the study of current topics; hence a study of inter-personal, inter-state and international relations and tensions.

- (vi) The study of institutions man has developed to solve his problems from time to time; e.g. the institutions of family, marriage, property, government and so on.

From this outline* it should be possible to construct a Social Studies syllabus in such a way that the theme, viz., the life of man-in-society, may develop from topic to topic and from year to year into one continuous story for three to four years of the Secondary school stage.

Fascinating Story: The theme of Social Studies can be described as the story of man in society; the story of how society has developed from the earlier beginnings; how society has contributed to the progress of man; how man in turn has reacted to society at different periods of history, and in different places, often modifying it to suit his changing needs; how problems arose in society and how man has struggled to solve them. Children of all ages have a fascination for a story. The story of man and his struggle through all the vicissitudes of History and Geography is bound to be still more fascinating because it has a social significance for the young pupils. The subject matter of Social Studies should be organized, therefore, into a story, and a *fascinating story* which should involve the young pupils in it.

In Terms of Relationships: Social Studies thus attempts to achieve two objectives simultaneously: namely, to present in a fascinating form the story of the growth of society and its problems; and secondly, to develop in the pupils an abiding interest in society, an insight into its problems and an ability to tackle them. This implies, therefore, that through a well planned Social Studies syllabus, and activities connected with it, the pupils should be trained to think clearly, judge wisely and react to a situation correctly.

The two objectives of *describing* society and *training* the

* based on suggestions made in J. Hemming: *Teaching of Social Studies*.³

pupils, are however, not exclusive, but rather complementary. The specific task of the Social Studies programme will, therefore, be to bind the individual and society in several relationships. On one side is the child, on the other, the world. With the help of the syllabus, the teacher of Social Studies should introduce the one to the other and make them friends, so that the pupil feels he has a participating role in the life of the world. 'Psychology asserts that best education is one which gives the power to see most relations between things.'* The Social Studies syllabus could, therefore, be prepared in terms of several relationships between the individual and his world.

Psychological vs Logical: The Social Studies syllabus can be considered from two aspects: the content or the subject matter, and the organization of the arrangement of topics. The content aspect deals with *what* shall be taught; the selection and inclusion of topics which shall be covered in a given time. The organization, on the other hand, insists on how this or that topic shall be arranged in its proper sequence before it is taught. The former emphasizes a logical order in the treatment of topics. For example, in teaching Geography, it may insist that physical geography be done first: the solar system, physical features, climate and so on. And then should follow human and economic geography. In the teaching of History, it may insist that the story of man should be told in a chronological order. king after king, and reign after reign. The organization aspect, on the other hand, may insist that, even when physical geography is taught and importance of chronology in History is explained, they should be taught not first and never in isolation, but as parts of the study of topics, arranged and presented in an order which children at *their* age can understand and appreciate. This is the psychological order, as different from the logical. Logical order is important but comes later at the college stage, not at the school level. To repeat, in the school our aim should not be to present material in a neatly logical order, but to involve the pupil into learning the subject by getting him *interested*. For example, elementary ideas of erosion and deposition, of people's dress and social customs

* Quoted in M. L. Jacks: *Total Education*, p. 76.

could be introduced very early in the school with the help of illustrations picked up from the locality around. Many principles of physical geography could be deduced as generalizations from the study of a natural region, and should be taught as such. So far we have given too much importance to *what* is in the syllabus and invariably the teacher has accepted the responsibility only of completing the syllabus. Now the emphasis must shift from the subject matter to the child; hence the importance of *how* as well.

2. A Flexible Syllabus

In the shift from the subject matter to the pupil, the syllabus has naturally got to be flexible; it cannot be rigid. It should change according to the needs of the pupils, according to individual differences, according to the local resources available and be in tune with the social setting in which the Social Studies programme is to operate. All good education demands that the material of the curriculum should be linked with the experience of the learning pupil. The subject matter has some significance for him only when it touches his life at several points and when he feels that it is his own concern. The Post Office and the market, the lunch that he eats, and the books he reads, finding his way home from the school and knowing all about the pictures that he sees . . . these are the subjects, that matter to him and should have, therefore, a high priority in the syllabus. Only a flexible syllabus can accommodate in it the pupil's experience and leave freedom to the teacher to plan it according to the needs of the situation.

Further, in the growth of the child there are periods of readiness or 'appetite', or 'mood'; then it is that a particular type of knowledge or experience is readily accepted. If the knowledge is offered in a wrong way, either too early or too late when the period of receptiveness has passed away, the response may be quite sluggish. We must, therefore, offer a course that is at once rich with tempting opportunities for the age-group involved and, therefore, only a course that is flexible enough for a ready adjustment to meet the changing needs and interests of the pupils can prove useful. Such a course alone can secure attention and make learning possible.

The needs of the pupils may include, among other things, a knowledge of the locality, too. A pupil, for example, should know first-hand local topography and climate, flora and fauna, activities and occupations, social institutions and their working. He should understand how the problems of food and sanitation, education and employment, transport and administration, too are tackled at the local level. As no two localities are exactly alike, and are often completely different from one another in physical conditions, traditions and outlook, freedom must be given to the teacher to plan local studies according to the needs of the locality and the availability of local resources. Local resources of an industrial area will be different from those of a rural one; even so of the backward and the advanced areas, of the city and the town. Local environment may even require omission of topics like communism and caste, or may insist on glorification of local events. As the first lessons of Social Studies must be learnt in the locality, the syllabus has to be flexible and has to be built round the locality in which the pupil should be taught to participate.

Social Studies deal with life. Young people are always eager to learn about life and take interest in its problems. A flexible syllabus that unites the pupil with his locality is twice blessed: it blesseth both the pupil and the locality.

The plans of the teacher and the varied interests of the pupil could be unified into one whole only in a syllabus that is flexible and is planned jointly by both. This does not, however, mean that the teacher and the subject matter should be at the mercy of the class; but it *does* mean that the class must be taken into confidence and must accept the syllabus if the true purpose of teaching Social Studies is to be achieved. While the teacher should not move away from the final goal of the course, the details of the syllabus must have meaning and immediate significance for the learning pupil.

Experience has shown that a class which understands the purpose of the syllabus and has a say in its planning shows better performance than a class of equal intelligence but following an orthodox, routine type of prescribed subject matter syllabus; better performance not only in academic attainments but in non-academic matters too; in social awareness, resour-

cefulness, in meeting new situations, in knowledge of contemporary problems and so on. An adventurous and a socially directed syllabus helps the young pupils to grow into well equipped and well adjusted adults much more efficiently than does the rigidly imposed syllabus of the old type. This is apparent in the case of pupils of only average intelligence for whom a rigid syllabus is such a nightmare that they spend the last few months of the year in great suspense, waiting for the day of escape from it. It is natural that many a child's natural curiosity should end and a good deal of zest for life should die and all the interest in learning should disappear as a result of the completely readymade and rigid syllabus. For healthy growth the body needs a nourishing balanced diet, with abundance of fresh foods and plenty of varieties in it; so does the mind. The Social Studies syllabus should aim '...to provide a rich and varied menu of substantial things, first class appetizing food for thought and feeling, so that children's minds may get what they need to become nimble, alert, well-grown for squaring up to the tasks of life.'* The aim should therefore be to give only an outline pattern which the teacher and the taught jointly elaborate as they go along, and not a completed blue print as is sometimes done by a State Department of Education in our country.

3. Selection of Details

The selection of material for a Social Studies syllabus is not an easy job. The material should not only be pertinent to the nature of Social Studies, but should be within the capacity of pupils. It has to be properly taught and learnt, and has to result in the development of desired attitudes and character traits. It may often happen of course that these attitudes and traits develop more readily through some incidental and indirect learning than through a systematic teaching of selected subject matter. The selection becomes all the more difficult because of the peculiar nature of the subject. Social Studies is all inclusive and draws upon several subjects including His-

* Hemming, J.; *Teach Them to Live*.

tory, Geography, Economics, Sociology and Literature. All knowledge of man and society goes under it and so makes the selection of material extremely difficult. It tends to be heavy, sometimes, because of the temptation to include more and more in it, so that the details may be useful at a later stage.

The Social Studies material, to begin with, should be selected not for its utility from the adult point of view, but because it could be understood and appreciated *at his age* by the pupil. To the infant we do not offer bread because milk is the food it can take in, digest and enjoy at that age. Let us take care of the infant, and the adult will take care of himself. The same principles should be applied in the selection of material of the syllabus

Another sound principle is to select a few topics which could be very well done rather than offer too many to be just covered. A limited quantity of food carefully chewed, well digested, and properly assimilated is more beneficial than heavy meals hurriedly swallowed up. This principle of sound nutrition is equally important in teaching, as well. Just as heavy meals finally ruin both digestion and appetite, and are bad for the body, so does the heavy syllabus defeat the purpose of Social Studies and kills the pupil's interest in studies. An unnecessarily heavy syllabus engenders in the teacher an attitude of so-much-must-be-done and leaves little scope for experimentation in the organization of material or methods of teaching. There may be little time left for projects, excursions, library reading and other activities which alone would afford each pupil an opportunity to achieve that kind of success which he is capable of. A heavy syllabus gets divorced from the world of experience and confines itself to a theoretical completion with the help of the textbook and in the classroom; an approach which destroys the natural growth of curiosity and intellectual vitality in pupils. The result is that a large majority of children pass through the school without enjoying study; they are hurried from one topic to another at too great a speed for them to cope with the course. A syllabus should better avoid such disintegrating haste and frustration for children. It should not be forgotten that in a proper education of the child, methods and activities are as important as

the subject matter, and they should not be lost sight of when the syllabus is being framed. Due place should be found also for revision and repetition since they are essential elements of the learning process; repetition—not direct and literal which is extremely monotonous and wasteful, but of a planned type that calls for new activities and a fresh view-point (see Revision Projects—Appendix I).

Two more points before we sum up this argument: one, that the syllabus should offer material that is sufficiently varied, not only to remove the tedium of work, but to satisfy the varied needs of the different types of pupils. Pupils of every ability should find in it something sufficiently satisfying. Secondly, that the Social Studies course should neither be too difficult nor too easy. If it is too difficult it results in failure and frustration. The syllabus should rather offer abundant opportunities for both personal and group achievements. Success is the key to effort. The pupil should experience as he moves from topic to topic that the programme adds constantly to his knowledge and skills, useful for living. Nor should it be too easy. It should be sufficiently challenging to evoke interest and effort; it should stimulate a spirit of adventure and initiative in the pupil throughout the study.

A Social Studies syllabus therefore may consist of three types of material: *firstly*, the *basic or the most* essential information and skills which should be learnt well by every pupil. It is social obligation, for example, to know the History and Geography of ones' own country and important social and political institutions, and there should be no option for the pupil to leave it. Secondly, the *optional* elements of the content may vary according to the interests and abilities of pupils from place to place. Facts of World History and World Geography or the study of international problems may for example go under this category of content. To the third type belongs the study of the *locality*, the historical and geographical development of the locality and its institutions. This by its very nature will be different in different localities and cannot be prescribed in detail. If the selection of Social Studies material is done under these three types, the syllabus has a greater chance of being flexible and therefore more satisfying to the needs and demands of the subject, the teacher and the pupil.

4. Organization of Material

The selected material will then be organized into topics, problems, activities, projects, etc. The material to be useful has to be properly grouped, arranged and graded to suit the various educational levels. We shall therefore consider here some of the principles and devices of organizing material before it could be successfully presented to the class.

A well organized and graded syllabus should present an orderly, gradual and unbroken sequence of material arranged in an ascending order of difficulty. There should be neither gaps nor uneven advances. The grading of material therefore implies a careful consideration of both sequence of details in order to maintain continuity and coherence, and also its suitability for the various class levels, primary or secondary. The problems of grading become difficult because the material has to be adjusted not to an individual but to a *class*, that is, a group possessing varying abilities.

No two classes are exactly similar in intelligence, experience or training and the pupils within a class manifest great diversity of abilities and skills. There is still, however, a case for grading and an attempt must be made to present proper material at the various grade levels, bearing in mind the nature of the subject, the interests of the pupils and the targets to be achieved, at each stage.

- (a) *Pupils' Needs*: The material of the syllabus has to be properly graded in the first place to suit the stages of development to which the children belong. It has to be adapted to the stage of the pupil's maturity and range of experience. The age of the pupil can be an approximate indication of his interests and skills. Studies are made to indicate the stages when pupils can read charts graphs and maps, when they can understand social concepts, when they can reason or generalize, or when they can comprehend time concepts. Though the results of these studies are not wholly reliable, yet they can certainly offer some direction in the grading of material. If possible the material should be adapted to individual differences within an age-group, which could be best done with the help of individual assignments. While grading the material of the syllabus, one should also

take into account the characteristics of the adolescent period (13+ to 17+) which boys and girls at the secondary school stage have to pass through. It is a period of change and anxiety, physical growth and emotional upheaval. The youth often looks tired in body, awkward in posture and self-conscious in voice. He exhibits strange mannerisms, fads, eccentricities; and is restless, unstable and given to fantasies. Anxious and nervous about his ability to succeed in the world of adults, the adolescent resents interference and suggestions. Therefore, the material of the syllabus and the activities that go with it, will have to be adapted properly, to be in tune with the needs of this growing young person. Pupils at the age of 11 or 13 are more interested in the *making* of things than in discussion of social structure. Themes for this age-group should therefore be more concrete both in content and treatment, such as 'Housing Through The Ages', 'Voyages of Discoveries', and so on. For pupils above 13+ subjects of social interest could be added; for example, problems of social inequality, clearing of slums, payment of taxes, etc. As the pupils reach the age of 16 they can as well appreciate a discussion of the UNO and World Peace.

- (b) *Concentric Plan* : It is advisable in the first place to group the whole material of Social Studies in two or three cycles or in a concentric plan so that pupils repeat the study of a topic at different grade levels, with increasing details and complexity. It is very well known that pupils do not and cannot understand all the details of a topic at the first exposure, and that with growing maturity and widening range of experience they will be better able to understand the more difficult details later. A thorough study of the locality for example cannot and need not be completed in any single year, but had better spread over several years of school life, the child learning each year only those aspects which he would understand and appreciate at his age. It is customary, for example, to present History and Geography of the homeland in the form of stories of objects and peoples in the early years, and later on

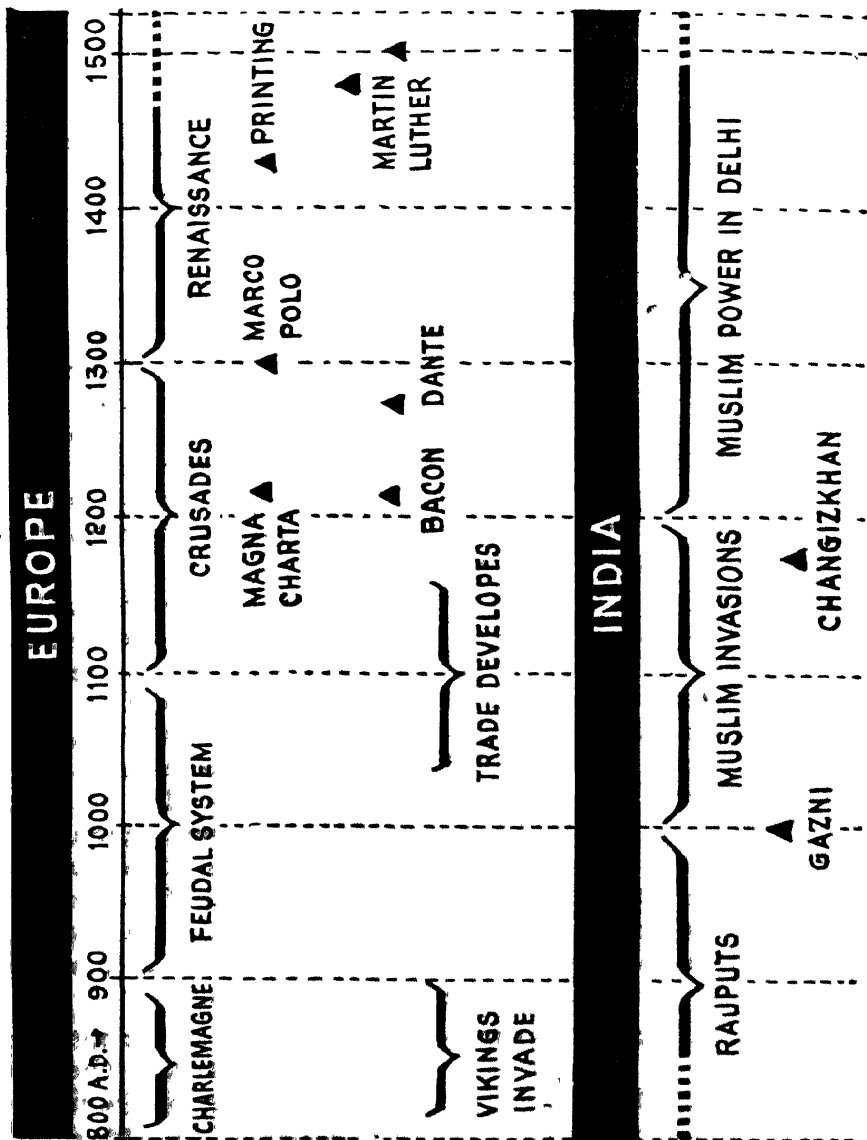
repeat the study through topics, movements and casual relations. Such a repetition has an additional advantage of meeting partly the requirements of those pupils who will not proceed to the secondary school at all.

The critics of the concentric plan argue that repetition makes learning monotonous and fails to hold the attention of pupils. The criticism can however be met by making the repetition interesting by following a different approach and a fresh view-point. A study of the Indian Constitution can be approached at least from four points of view; (i) Documents of the Constitution (ii) Makers of the Constitution (iii) Our Rights and the Constitution (iv) Democratic Features of our Constitution. If it had been approached one way before, the other approaches may be tried next time. Thus it may not be monotonous to repeat the course at least once. The course covered at the primary stage can be done in greater detail and more systematically at the secondary stage.

- (c) *Sequence* : Within the cycle the details should be arranged in a sequence, which may be determined by cause-and-effect or chronology or any other relationship or relationships which the topics and details have for one another. Social institutions like the family, the caste system and trade unions are better understood if the material is arranged properly in order of their evolution. In Geography the desirable arrangement is regional in which a natural region is studied with reference to its physical features, climate, flora and fauna, and human activity, each throwing light on every other. In cases where the unit is a country, the country can be studied through its natural regions.
- (d) *Chronology* Chronology furnishes a clear, logical frame for organizing material of History whether one proceeds from the past to the present or from the present back into the past. Chronology tries to show how an event, a movement, a custom or an institution has developed into its present form.

School teachers argue that the pupil before the

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age of 13 or 14 can hardly comprehend or appreciate chronology, and they are right. It is perhaps too much importance given to chronology and dates in History that has made History dull and dry and unpopular. Strict adherence to chronology breaks up a topic into too many fragments and makes it difficult to understand. While chronology, therefore, is important in tracing development of ideas, movements or institutions, it should not be introduced too early in the school and should not be used too rigidly. It would be advisable for example to present History even at the secondary stage through a series of interesting topics, and plan its revision by asking the class to arrange the important events and movements on a dateline (see Appendix I). Chronology then not only becomes more meaningful, but is immensely useful in binding the material in proper relationships which pupils understand quicker and retain longer.

- (e) *Growing Complexity*: We can certainly think of arranging material according to growing complexity, or in a sequence of increasing degree of difficulty. The child at the primary stage, for example, can understand concrete topics concerned with objects and individuals better than, say, Government or Renaissance, or Reformation which must be postponed to the secondary school stage. The idea of time and space, and a truer knowledge of environment both begin to be clear only towards the end of the primary stage or by the age of 12 or 13. The material should be so graded in difficulty that in each class the pupil studies facts and develops skills and habits of study which are necessary for the next class. Thus the arrangement of material should provide for continuous progress from class to class.
- (f) *Topics*: With due regard to the concentric plan and chronology, it is always better to organize material in broad topics. Under a topic related material often gets properly unified, making learning easier and syllabus lighter. The topic gives meaning and significance to the content; this is the reason perhaps why some books are

written according to the topical plan. Under a topical arrangement the teacher finds it easy to teach and convenient to organize projects and other activities.

- (g) *Units*: The syllabus should therefore be stated in terms of broad but meaningful topics, only. And the teacher may be left free to split up a topic into teaching units and include or exclude details according to the needs of his pupils and availability of the local facilities. A unit has some very definite objectives of, say, developing an understanding, a skill or an attitude. The objective serves as a touchstone by which to determine the inclusion or exclusion of details of a particular material. All material that does not focus into the objective is irrelevant and will have no place in the unit. These units may then be presented as Problems or Projects or as individual lessons according to the needs of the situation. Problems and Projects are discussed in greater detail in the chapter on methods.

All units however need not be of the same size and length. Units that sweep across large areas of subject matter should be mixed up with units which are limited in content and require intensive study. In the making of a good film certain portions of the theme are shown in great detail whereas certain others are hurriedly passed over or left to be imagined by the spectators. So with the units of study; some that require to be thoroughly explained and discussed in the group may alternate with units which the pupil can study by himself, with the help of books and other resources.

Let us conclude this discussion with a note of warning:

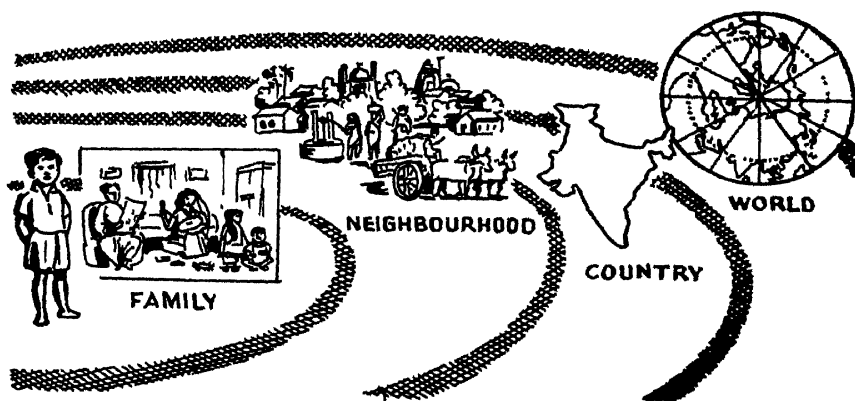
- (i) that these various forms in which Social Studies material could be organized are not exclusive of one another. They overlap and supplement one another; and the teacher will do well to combine these forms into useful patterns. A problem may be found within a Project, which in turn may make the unit. A unit may consist of study projects, oral lessons or individual assignments. It will be found that the sample syllabuses given in the next chapter have used all these forms of organization quite freely.

- (ii) That the syllabus as a whole should try to provide ample variety in organisation, so that the study does not become monotonous. Indoor study and outdoor trips, group work and individual lessons, should go to lend variety in the study of topics and units.
- (iii) That the deciding principle in the organisation of the syllabus would be the ability and the interests of the pupils concerned. Nothing that pupils cannot willingly accept shall be placed before them.

SUGGESTING THE SOCIAL STUDIES SYLLABUS

1. Three Stages

IF THE pupil's study of his gradually extending environment is an indispensable element of Social Studies, we can say that a Social Studies programme can be uniformly appropriate to pupils of all age-groups in primary and secondary schools. We can, then, think of the Social Studies syllabus developing through three different stages: initial, middle and the final — during the ten or eleven years of a pupil's school life.



Social Studies is a study of extending environment

First Stage : During the first three or four years at school, work will be mostly oral because the pupils are still learning only reading and writing. Social Studies, at this stage, will not, therefore, involve the use of text-books, but will be mostly done through visits and observation. The pupils will be called upon to write little, if anything at all. Such a study will generally be confined to the locality: the home, the school, the neighbourhood, the village or town, and the district. Only towards the close of this stage (Standard IV or V) may the pupils be slowly and '*in a general way*' introduced to the State and the country. The main purpose of the programme at this stage will be the formation of clear concepts through direct observation and experience. The teacher will therefore never be in a hurry to *teach*

formal *History* or *Geography*, nor to *finish* the syllabus. The syllabus will not consist of systematic Geography or chronological History. Much of Geography will be only nature-study and will include visits to the market-place, farm, local workplaces, a stream or pond, weekly fair and so on, and will help pupils to know how people live and make use of the local resources. The programme of History will be the telling, and later reading, of stories of the heroes of the nation.

It is possible that teachers used to a prescribed syllabus should fail to realise the importance of this stage and the programme suggested for it. But it has often happened that, just because a programme of oral work and visits and activities was not carefully planned and executed, and clear concepts were not properly formed in the beginning, the pupils failed to understand and enjoy their studies at later stages.

Second Stage: Now is the time (age group 12 + to 14 that is Standards VI-VII-VIII) when the children will read more, and read for information. The teacher should, therefore, give opportunities and encourage them to read books other than textbooks, and collect information from books, journals, newspapers, files and broadcast talks. At this stage the pupils can be well *introduced* to the techniques of group-work, projects, discussions and reports. Pupils at this age are *makers* of things and like very much to work with hands and feet. Activities like the making of models, charts and maps, arranging exhibitions, and organizing excursions and visits for the purpose of explorations and study, can, therefore, be undertaken preferably as part of projects.

Facts are the raw material on the basis of which generalizations and principles are later arrived at. Generalizations based on limited facts and experiences are hasty and, therefore, not convincing. This middle stage is of great use in encouraging pupils to study and remember as many facts as possible. Memory, too is active and helps towards achieving the purpose. The approach should be *descriptive*: the teacher should describe without hesitation and describe effectively. Regional but descriptive (not causal relations) study of Geography, and life and achievements of makers of History, great men and women who were builders of civilization—that is, political, social, industrial or artistic life of the society, will be the subject matter of a

Social Studies programme for the middle stage. Because this stage will mark the end of primary education and may be a terminal point in the education of many, it is necessary that a descriptive study of the State and the nation, their resources, activities and government, and a broad and general introduction to the rest of the world, be also made a part of the programme.

Incidentally this is the stage when correct reading habits should be developed; correct expression, oral and written, should be expected; and good handwriting insisted on — abilities which constitute the necessary techniques of study if the pupil is to profit by the programme that the next stage has to offer.

Third Stage : So we come to the third stage, the secondary school stage (which should cover the age group 14+ to 17+) called the 'system stage' by psychologists. It is during this stage that pupils will be trained in the art of examining data (collected in the earlier stages), and sifting, arranging and organizing them into generalizations and principles. Pupils now may be led to understanding the 'causes' and seeing the 'relationships' of what is happening in the environment around. It is now that problems can be raised which the pupils should struggle to solve with the help of the techniques of study, they have been introduced to earlier; namely, using the library ably, discussing profitably, and reporting systematically. Increasing portions of the syllabus will now be covered through individual and group projects and greater emphasis will be placed on learning by the pupil than on teaching by the teacher. A thorough study of the history and geography of the country with the rest of the world providing the background, may be the main theme of the first two years of the stage. The last year (or two) may be devoted to the study of Social institutions (family, government, etc.), as they grow out of the historical and geographical background; and also to the most important task of binding the individual pupil, in friendship, to these institutions so that both may grow together and richer than before. It is in the atmosphere of this relationship and friendship that the individual develops a true understanding for and an insight into the social problems which he should honestly tackle and possibly solve. Then alone is the purpose of teaching Social Studies in the school well served.

With these general considerations about the syllabus and approach, an attempt is made in this chapter to give a few samples of a Social Studies syllabus for Secondary schools in India.

2. One Integrated Syllabus

Here is a Social Studies syllabus for the use of Higher Secondary Schools. The syllabus can be covered in three or four years (Stds. VIII to XI or IX to XI) depending on the convenience of the school. The age-group involved will be 13 or 14+ to 17+, and in terms of the standard aimed at, this syllabus should prepare the students for entrance to the three-year degree course in a University.

This syllabus presumes that Social Studies at the school level is not to be a mere compendium of the separate subjects of History, Geography, Civics, etc., but 'a compact whole whose object is to adjust the students to their social environment which includes the family, community, state, nation and world, so that they may be able to understand how society has come to its present form and interpret intelligently the matrix of social forces and movements in the midst of which they are living.*' The main consideration in favour of one integrated syllabus rather than separate courses in History, Geography and Administration has been that the units of study in such an integrated syllabus become more meaningful and functional than in the other, and, therefore, the purpose of Social Studies is better achieved. The selection of topics is done with the purpose of providing background information in order to enable the students to understand, and if possible tackle, present-day problems of society. Thus facts, principles, and generalizations are to be learnt from History, Geography, Economics, etc., only so far as they help the young people to understand life and institutions in India and the world; or tasks, activities and projects are to be undertaken as part of the syllabus only because they would help them acquire skills and develop attitudes which may be described as basic to successful living in a democracy. The syllabus covers the basic facts of History and Geography of India and the world and

* *Secondary Education Commission Report*, p. 93.

the main features of Indian Administration and Constitution, but in a way that is different from the traditional.

*I. Living in Communities: Class IX:**

The programme includes here the study of (i) how men live and work together and utilize their resources both in the home region and typical world regions to satisfy their basic needs; (ii) how differences in the ways of living of these communities are rooted in their geographical environment and historical development; and while there are differences in the way of living, there is an essential unity of civilization and commonality of interests among all men; (iii) hence the central theme of the whole course is that all peoples of the world have the same basic needs, although the ways of satisfying them differ from region to region, according to the resources both physical and human.

The following are the broad topics suggested:

(i) *Living in the Local Community*: (a) Physical features, climatic conditions and natural resources of the locality. (b) How the locality helps to meet the *primary needs* for food, clothing, shelter and transport. (c) *Social and Cultural* needs of the community: health services, recreational, educational and cultural facilities in the locality. (d) Agricultural and industrial activities of the community for meeting the *economic needs* of the community: job opportunities for young people. (e) Through the study to bring out the interdependence of man in community and the world outside it: trade and means of communication and transport.

Note: Most of the study of the locality should be done direct through observation, surveys, field-trips, visits, interviews, etc., throughout the course of the academic year.

(ii) *Living in Pre-historic and Ancient Communities*: (a) Primitive Life: Early human settlements — primitive tools and mode of living — earliest forms of government — family, clan, and tribe; places where primitive life exists in the present world. (b) River Valley Civilizations: With a more detailed study of Mohenjodaro and Harappa; unique achievements of the valley civilizations — tools, mode of life, public works, etc.

* Full use is made here of the syllabus issued by the Secondary Education Council, Government of India

(c) Aryan Civilization: a survey of early and later Vedic Civilization in the Indo-Gangetic plain—the social and economic life of the people—the caste system—art science and religion. (d) Abiding elements of the Greek and Roman Civilizations. (e) The Age of Great Teachers: Buddha, Mahavir, Socrates, Confucius; literature of the period. (f) The civilization of the Mauryas and Guptas; expansion of Indian Culture, trade and commerce beyond India; contribution of Chanakya, Ashoka, Kanishka, Samudragupta, Harsha and Pulakeshin—accounts of travellers:- Fa Hien, Hieun Tsang. (g) The spread of Islam in India—its impact and contribution. Saints of India and the Bhakti movement. (h) Towards a national monarchy—Alauddin, Sher Shah, Akbar—machinery of administration; social institutions. (i) Contribution of the Moghuls to the social and economic life, education, art, architecture and literature. Compare with conditions and development in contemporary Europe; great contemporaries of Akbar.

(iii) *Communities in the World Today*: A study of some typical communities of the world in order to illustrate how their activities and ways of living are the result of the interaction of their geographical environment and historical development; the study could be presented through the major natural regions of the world; every region may be studied in three stages: how primitive life was organized in the region; how contacts with the rest of the world began and development started; what is its present position and status in the world. The following may be selected for this type of study:

(a) A Malayan Community — compare with life in the Amazon and the Congo Basins (life in equatorial regions). (b) Mining in West Australia—how mining towns grow up in a desert—compare with Bedouins or Arabs and Fellahin of Egypt (hot desert regions). (c) North Chinese Farmers—traditions of forty centuries—intensive agriculture and subsidiary occupations—progress of New China (monsoon lands). (d) Life in Holland — 'Hollow land' — fighting the sea for land—intensive mixed farming and dairy work (West European type). (e) Industrial life in the Rhineland—minerals and industries; coal and iron; wars between France and Germany (Central Europe). (f) Cattle and Wheat farming in the American Prairies and Argentina; the difference in levels

of civilization of the two (temperate grasslands). (g) Among the coniferous forests—life on the St. Lawrence—saw-mills and paper—mills running on hydro-electricity—fur trade with Red Indians and Eskimos (Coniferous regions). (h) A reindeer farm in North Siberia—collective farm—the old and the new ways of growing wheat in the polar regions (the tundra or cold deserts).

Revision of the whole unit with a study of the location of the major regions on a world map, emphasizing the fact that each region has its own individuality.

The above syllabus can be either covered entirely by class IX or a part of it can be shared by class VII² as well. The study should enable the pupil to see how life and activities are organized differently in different parts of the world, and how they are very much, though not entirely, influenced by both geographical factors like physical features and climate, and by traditions and history of the people. Through the study, the pupil should see how social institutions develop, and decay when they have served a purpose, and new ones take their place. The course affords variety; the first unit could be done through direct study; in the second History occupies the pivotal position, and in the third unit, Geography. Yet the central theme remains the same, viz., the life of man from the earliest times and in different parts of the world. This may be considered enough background information for understanding the shape of the modern world and man's life in it — the subject matter for the next grade.

II. *Living in the Modern Industrial World (Std. X)*

The following may be the broad topics:

(i) *The modern world takes shape in the West.* (a) A brief survey of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance; the Age of Discovery and the development of sea trade; first contacts of India with the West. (b) Rise of Democracy in Great Britain; the French Revolution—its effect on the East and West; problems which the Industrial World gave rise to. (c) Study of locality with particular reference to the modernization of the community in its activities and way of living.

(ii) *How India's Civilization was influenced by the West:* (a) Early European settlements for trade and the emergence of the British as the leading foreign power. (b) The decline

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The student must know that all learning is not confined to the classroom and to the words of the Teacher :



Above : Visit to a farm and discussion with the farmer brings variety and freshness to study.

Below : Visit to a local bank makes bank operations easier to understand than any amount of classroom explanation by the teacher.

(Experimental School, Baroda)

of the Moghuls; the rise and fall of the Marathas and the supremacy of the British. (c) The British traders becoming Rulers of India—policy of annexation and expansion; East India Company's machinery of administration—Regulating Act and Pitt's India Act—Charter Acts; Mutiny of 1857; India under the Crown. (d) Effect of the Company's rule on India's social and economic life; ruin of Indian industries and trade; poverty of India.

(iii) *Towards Independence: 1857-1957:* (a) India under the Crown and the development of national consciousness. Cultural and educational movements led by Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Dayanand Saraswati, Sir Syed Ahmed and others. (b) Development of representative institutions and local self-government. Morley-Minto and Montague-Chelmsford Reforms; effects of the two World Wars. (c) The Indian National Congress — Mahatma Gandhi — Non-Cooperation Movement; the Round Table Conference; Act of 1935; Independence, (1947).

The basic theme for Class X is the study of how under the influence of the West (sea-routes, Industrial Revolution, trade and colonialism) India first became a dependency and then achieved (also under the influence of the West) independence. Through the study the pupils may be enabled to see the growing interdependence of nations as industries, communications and trade expanded. They may also see how colonialism and commerce go together; how empires develop and through competition tend towards war; how the development of large-scale industries affect the structure of the society, the family life and social relationships. This study may be expected to complete the background information necessary for understanding them, which is the main theme of the next year's syllabus.

III. *Living as Citizens of India and the World (Std. XI)*

Young people of today are the architects of India's future destiny. They should therefore be conscious of their role as citizens, their rights and responsibilities in a free India. And so should they be enabled to understand and attack problems of national reconstruction. India is a part of the world and is influenced every moment by events taking place in the world around. Those who wish to solve India's problems should

therefore take interest in the outside world and its problems too. Hence the topics suggested are: "

(i) *Our Social Institutions and Family Life*: (a) Study of the family as the fundamental social and economic unit, in all communities past and present; family satisfies the basic needs of members; obligations of parents and children; recent changes in the structure of the Indian family. (b) Study of caste and class; their importance in the past, need for reform at present. (c) The school and the neighbourhood; as a good member of the school and the neighbourhood organizing activities for a democratic living (topic for direct study).

(ii) *Administration of the Community: Citizen's Rights and Duties*: (a) Local government—Structure of the local government and its functioning; how we participate in local government—elections and local taxes; panchayats, local boards, municipalities; administration of the District—first-hand study of the pupil's own District. (b) State government and national government — relation between the State and national governments; division of functions; study of the working of the Constitution; Fundamental Rights and citizens' duties; the role of the judiciary.

(iii) *Living as Citizens of the World Community*: (a) A closely knit world as a result of transport, communications and commercial interdependence; a result of cultural give and take; a result of fear of atom bombs and war. (b) The ideal of One World — the two world wars; World organizations — League of Nations; the UNO and its agencies and their work. India and the UNO.

(iv) *Problems of Reconstruction: Problems of National Reconstruction*: (a) Our Food problem; grow-more-food campaigns — irrigation projects, better manure, better methods and marketing; land reforms; how to help the farmer. (b) Industrial development: textiles, minerals, steel; large-scale, small-scale, and cottage industries; labour and industry; finance for industry. (c) National Income and employment: job opportunities; raising the standard of living. (d) Educational and social reforms; cultural development. (e) A Study of our Five Year Plans.

(v) *Problems of Reconstruction: Problems of World Peace*: National reconstruction linked up with world peace; problems of food, health and education in the world; work of

FAO, WHO, UNESCO etc.; problems of peace; atom and peace; India's contribution to world peace; Panchashila.

The final year correctly winds up the three or four year programme of Social Studies with (i) a study of institutions as they developed in the service of man; and (ii) a programme of training the young people, as they grow, in attacking real problems, against the background of History and Geography. The student will make a detailed study of India, and only those portions of World History and Geography which provide background for understanding events at home.

3. Syllabus in Time Sequence

This syllabus is stated in thirteen broad topics and is meant to be covered in three to four years of the secondary school stage. The topics are arranged in time sequence and therefore a reference to time line becomes indispensable at every stage. Facts of Geography, Economics and Administration become, in a way, subservient to History, in this syllabus. Historical development occupies, thus, a pivotal position. The topics are as follows:

(i) *Study of the locality* (direct study): (a) The history of the locality and its growth from early time; resources of the locality; life and occupations of the people; government, places of worship, etc. (b) How the locality is a constituency for the State and national legislature; how the locality is linked up with the nation and the world. (c) The locality is a mere dot in the vast universe — but a very significant dot.

(ii) *The Earth is Born*: (a) The Nebulae and the star system; formation of planets and the earth; the moon; gravitation and movement of heavenly bodies; results: day and night — the year. (b) The earth; cooling of earth; its present form; shape and size; land and water; continents and oceans.

(iii) *Evolution of Life on Earth*: Upto the appearance of man on the earth; climate and life. (a) Water, air and sun; the basic chemistry of life — conditions for survival of life in plants, animals and man. (b) Characteristics of animals and man; gregariousness, defence, reproduction. (c) How the stage is set for man to become civilized; how plants and animals serve man.

(iv) *Civilization Begins*: (a) Civilization began with the Stone Age; invention of implements necessary to produce fire; development of earliest human societies on the earth; influence of climate on the mode of living and organization. (b) From pre-historic life to civilized life; river-valley civilizations — Egypt, Mesopotamia, China; fuller treatment of Mohenjo Daro. (c) Early Aryan civilization in India; detailed study of the general geography of India; physical features, climate and vegetation. (d) Virtues of co-operation, toleration, concern for others — civilizing ideas at work from the earliest times. Intercourse through travel and commerce; contribution of each stage to the progress of mankind.

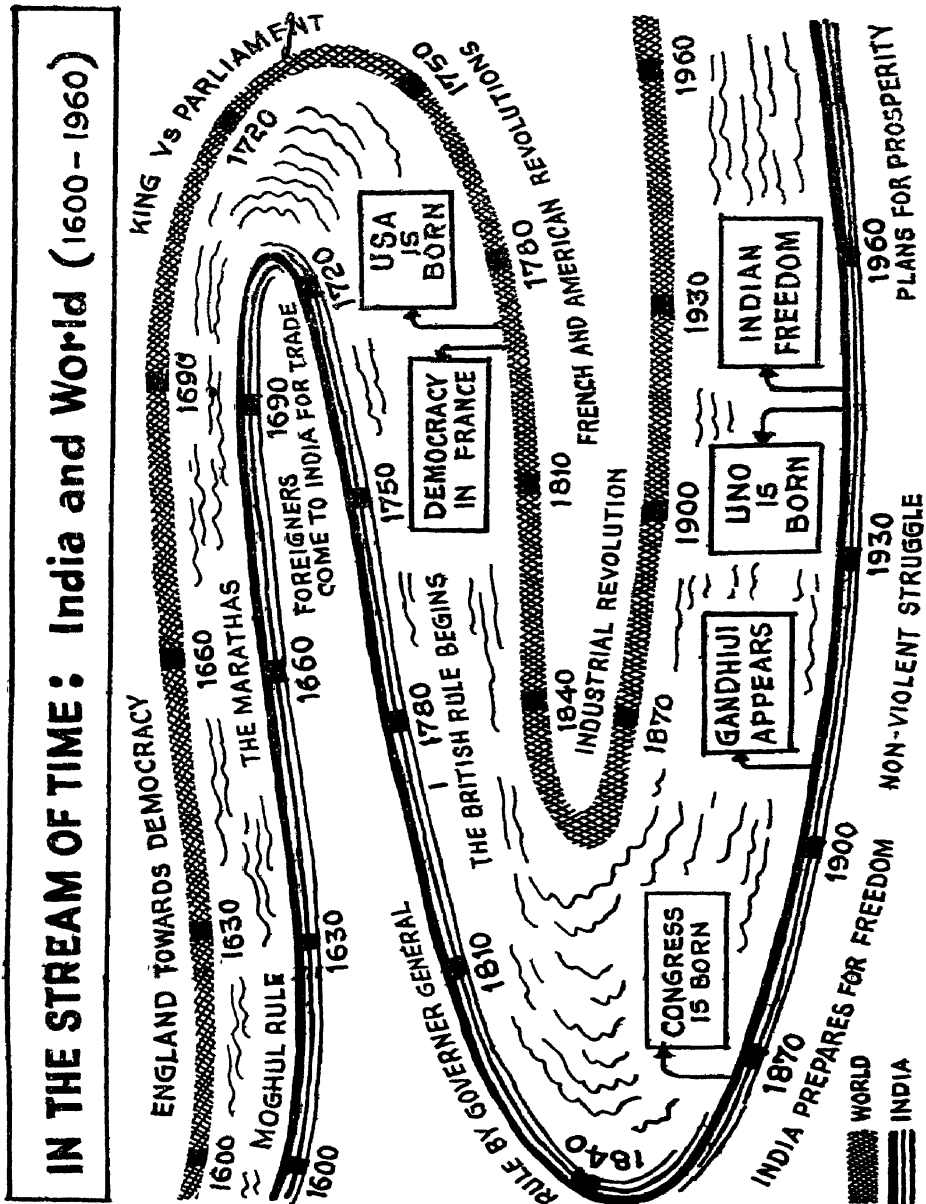
(v) *Life in Ancient Times*: (a) The Mauryas and the Guptas. (b) The early civilizations — Greek, Roman, Chinese and Persian — their social, religious and economic aspects; farming, handicrafts, literature, art, etc.; political organization. (c) Institutions peculiar to every one of these civilizations which contributed to progress.

(vi) *Life in Mediaeval Times*: (a) Spread of Christianity and the power of the Church; the Crusades. (b) The Feudal System in Europe (500-1500). (c) The Feudal System in India — the Rajputs; the Delhi Sultanate (A. D. 700-1500); social, economic and cultural aspects of life.

(vii) *Renaissance: The awakening*: (a) Voyages and Discoveries. (b) Inventions; spread of knowledge. (c) The Reformation; the Church and the State. (d) New attitudes in literature, fine arts, architecture and religion. (e) The Moghuls in India (1500-1700).

(viii) *Struggle of Modern Man*: Struggle for food, clothing, housing — evolution of fishing, farming, transport; evolution of industry and commerce. (b) Discoveries and inventions; changes in agriculture, industries, communications, transport; conquest of sea and air. (c) Science and medicine — better health and better living. (d) Exploitation of the globe — Mineral wealth of the world; Power resources — coal, oil, water, electricity; Industrial Development — developed and under-developed countries; Competition for markets and growth of empires; world wars, 1914, 1939.

(ix) *Wealth of India*: (a) Physical features — climate and forest wealth. (b) Agriculture — food crops and cash crops



(c) Rocks — mineral wealth. (d) Conquest of India by the British and its exploitation 1857-1947.

(x) *India's Struggle for Freedom*: (a) Awakening under the leadership of Raja Ram Mohan Roy and others. (b) Struggle of 1857. (c) Indian National Congress, 1885-1920. (d)

Leadership of Gandhiji, 1920-47. (e) Fifteen years of freedom, 1947-62.

(xi) *Problems of Modern India*: (a) Food, clothing and housing; health and education. Hence improvement of agriculture and development of industries raising the standard of living; spending capacity of individuals. National income — Five Year Plans. (b) *Problems of Social Living* — Importance of speech; powers of reasoning and communication; art, music, drama, dance as means of communication; essential values of decent community life; getting along with others. Happy family life; good manners; crime and anti-social behaviour. (c) *Problems of Democratic Living* — Ideals of democracy, freedom, justice and tolerance; correct procedure of discussion, debate, voting; public opinion and propaganda; film, radio and the press; an efficient functioning of democracy. Citizenship — obligations; developing right attitudes; co-operation, community projects and social welfare activities. (d) India and her neighbours; the Commonwealth; cultural intercourse.

(xii) *Problems of the Modern World*: (a) Problems of feeding, clothing and housing mankind. Problems of over-population, ill-health and ignorance — helping underdeveloped countries. (b) Problems of political organization; war and peace; world peace and the atom. (c) The work of the UNO and its agencies in solving some of these problems. India's contribution to world welfare and world peace.

(xiii) *Makers of the Modern World*: (a) In art, medicine, education, philosophy — Huxley, Tagore, Gandhiji, Tolstoy, Einstein, Marx and others. (b) *Values of life* — standards of civilized life — ideals of freedom, justice, tolerance.

4. Syllabus in Space Relations

This is another way of stating the Social Studies syllabus in eight broad topics to be covered in three to four years of Secondary school stage. In this syllabus Geography occupies the pivotal position; History, Economics or Political Science help to show how a geographical unit has developed by stages and has assumed the present position in relation to the rest of the units. In this approach, not the timeline but the

map will assume greater importance in binding the units together in space relations.

The following are the topics:

(i) *Home*: (study to be direct). (a) The historical development of housing; its beginning — construction — material for construction — facilities offered, water supply, etc. — plan of a house. (b) Different types of houses for different social classes — decoration, furniture, architecture. (c) How the home gets the different necessities of life — food, clothing and other services such as the newspaper, radio, post, medical help, etc.; its relation to the locality and the nation. (d) Family — members of the family; size of family. Obligations of members to one another; qualities of a happy family; family customs and traditions; institution of marriage — what the family does for the development of the individual; individual's duty to the family.

(ii) *Locality*: Town and District: (study to be direct). (a) History and growth of the locality — present resources and topography — climate, life and occupations of the people; social and economic institutions; places of worship, etc. (b) Government of the District; Local self-government. (c) Town planning — residential areas, markets, work places, etc. — survey of the locality, town or village. (d) Place and importance of locality in state and national legislatures; what the locality does for the individual; the individual's obligations to the locality.

(iii) *State*: (a) Geography of the State — physical features, climate, natural vegetation — roads — natural resources, coastline, etc. — special features. (b) Historical development of the State from the earliest times to the present day; present distribution of population by religion, language, occupation, rural and urban; backward people — Bhils, etc., chief cities of the State. (c) Present resources of the State; agriculture and industries; trade and transport; possibilities of future development. (d) Government machinery; the individual, home and the State. Obligations and relationships.

(iv) *Rest of India*: (a) Geography of India; physical features and climate. (b) Historical development from the days of Mohenjo Daro to Independence; social, cultural and economic.

mic life of the people. (c) Wealth of India — forests, agriculture and crops, food and cash crops — minerals, power resources — water, coal, oil. (d) How people are occupied, relation between industry and agriculture. (e) Means of communication — travel, transport. (f) Commerce and interdependence of States — unity in diversity. (g) Relation between a State and the rest of India. (h) Problems of present-day India; problems of food, population, employment, standard of living, health; development of industries and agriculture; problems of education and living together; mutual understanding between different groups of people and developing democratic traditions.

(v) *Neighbours of India*: (South East Asia, South West Asia, North Central Asia and Ceylon): (a) Geography of the neighbouring regions — physical features and climate. (b) Present resources of the neighbouring regions; activities and life of people. (c) Cultural, commercial and political relations between India and her neighbours: past and present; possibilities of development. (d) India and the rest of Asia in broad detail only.

(vi) *India and the Commonwealth*: (a) Countries of the Commonwealth — their location on the globe; connections by land, sea and air. (b) Geography of the Commonwealth countries; physical features and climate. (c) Resources of the Commonwealth countries; agriculture and industries. Commerce between them. (d) Historical development of the Commonwealth — the part it plays in solving Commonwealth and world problems.

(vii) *India and the World*: (a) A regional study of the Geography of the world with reference to physical features and climate. (b) Resources of each region; occupations of its people; developed and underdeveloped regions; agriculture, industries, power; place of India in world resources. (c) Trade and commerce between regions; towns, means of communication — land, sea and air routes — interdependence of regions. (d) Problems of the world — food, clothing, housing, health problems; development of agriculture and industries; development of understanding between peoples: ideal of one world. World wars; contribution of India to the solution of world problems; India and the UNO, WHO, FAO etc.

(viii) *The Universe*: (a) The earth — how it came into existence — its shape and size; land forms, oceans and continents. (b) The known world at different periods of History; discoveries and expeditions. (c) Exploitation of the resources of the earth; power resources, minerals, rivers, etc.; problem of conservation of resources. (d) Our earth and the problem of population; race relations (e) Our earth and other planets.

5. In Terms of Relationships

This is one more way of organizing the topics in one integrated syllabus of Social Studies. Instead of pinning attention to History and Geography, the individual is kept in the centre and each topic is stated in terms of his relationship with his environment. All the topics together make up the study of the world, that is the individual's environment. The syllabus can therefore be described as stated in terms of the individual's several relationships with his environment. Here are the topics.*

(i) *With the Family*: (a) The history of the family; members of the family. (b) The resources of the family — what the family offers for the growth (physical, intellectual and emotional) of the pupil. (c) How the family gets its food, clothing and other necessities of life — comforts and luxuries. (d) Obligations of the members to one another and to the neighbourhood and the State; family customs and traditions. (e) Indebtedness to ancestors; duty to posterity.

(ii) *With Locality*: (a) The area of the locality — the school, neighbourhood, town, village; map of the locality. (b) Physical features and climate; flora and fauna — resources of the locality; means of transport. (c) Historical development of the locality; public places; famous men of the locality; how life therein is organized at present; local institutions; local economy. (d) People of the locality — occupations and activities of the people; distribution of people; customs and traditions of the people; interdependence of groups. (e) The individual's obligations to the locality; duty to posterity.

Note: For items (i) and (ii) above, study should be direct and a survey may be prepared by pupils.

*based on suggestions made in J. Hemming: *Teaching of Social Studies*

(iii) *With the Country*: (a) Physical, built and climate of the country; place of locality in the country; resources of the country. (b) Development of culture from the earliest times; its great men and famous places; institutions that have developed; customs and traditions of the country. (c) Distribution of the people at present; agriculture, industries, other occupations and activities; interdependence of peoples; unity in diversity. (d) Government of the country; relation with neighbouring countries and the Commonwealth. (e) India and the rest of the world — India's contribution to world peace and welfare.

(iv) *With The Earth and the Universe*: (a) Our country a part of the earth; continents and oceans; general topography of the earth. (b) Birth of the earth; solar system; planets and stars; day and night. (c) Atmosphere on the earth; seasons, climate and life; basic chemistry of life.

(v) *With Life*: (a) Evolution of life on the earth; plant animal and human life. (b) Characteristics of life; living together, defence, reproduction, struggle for survival. (c) Reasons for the survival of man. (d) Natural regions (climate, vegetation and animal life) of the world.

(vi) *Adventures of the Early Man*: (a) Man's struggle for primary needs of life; food shelter and clothing; cavemen, herdsmen, farmers, etc. (b) Invention of fire; implements — farming etc. (c) Organization of life; primitive societies; work and recreation; transport, communication; co-operation and toleration; the River Valley Civilizations.

(vii) *Progress of Civilization*: (a) What is Civilization? Civilization begins with the Stone Age. (b) River Valley Civilizations. Importance of rivers then and now. (c) Progress of science — discoveries and inventions — use of Science in farming, fishing, use of metals, transport. (d) Progress for health and comfort. (e) Exploitation of the globe — resources of the earth; industry and commerce; conquest of air; nations of today — their relationships. (f) How population of the world is spread over the globe; how people are occupied today; relation between agriculture and industry. (g) Problems of the modern world — problems of food, clothing, housing — problems of health and education — struggle

for justice and freedom — problems of living together — dream of one world.)

(vii) *Living with Fellowmen*: (a) What is social living? (b) Evolution of speech; powers of reasoning and communication; means of communication; art, drama, music, dance, etc., the film, radio and press. (c) Public Opinion — propaganda, trade unions and other organizations. (d) Correct procedures of discussions, debates, voting, etc. (e) Crime and anti-social behaviour. (f) Essential values of decent community life; getting along with others, good manners; ideals of democracy.

(ix) *Eternity and Time*: (a) Position of home, school, locality and country in time and space. (b) Time scale — astronomical, biological, geological time. Time scale discussed in the *Puranas*, *Upanishads*. (c) Time scale of evolution; of man's progress; of recorded history. (d) The tempo of change — man's attempt to understand the indefinite; Einstein's studies.

6. In Terms of Topics

This sample of a Social Studies syllabus is in terms of topics. Each topic in a way stands by itself and all the topics are, or rather could be, connected together by the teacher with the help of individual lessons, which may rightly be called 'link' lessons.

These topics make up the whole syllabus which could be graded and covered in three to four years at the secondary school stage (age group 13 + to 17 +). The topics could be grouped under four broad headings, each to be covered in one year.

First Year: The Primary Needs of Life: General and with reference to World: food, clothing, housing, transport and communications.

Second Year: The Homeland: The topics of the first year in greater detail and with reference to India; *plus* industry, trade and communications.

Third Year: The Rest of the World: The neighbours of India; the Commonwealth, the U.S.A., China, Japan, Germany, France; with particular reference to the exploitation of the resources of the world and interdependence of its parts.

Fourth Year : Problems of the Modern World.

The topics for each year may be stated as follows:

First Year : *The Primary Needs of Life* :

(i) *Food* — Ways in which man in various places, and at various times, has obtained it. (a) Primitive man and his love of *hunting* and *collecting*. (b) Food — meat, fruits; tools and weapons used; catching fish; preserving and cooking meat; hunting, collecting, fishing today in the world — countries which offer such facilities; preservation and transport of meat, fish, fruits today. (b) Next step forward towards food — instead of killing animals man tames them; sheep, goats, cows, horses, camels, etc. Stories of shepherds from the Bible and the Koran, Puranas; Krishna the cowherd boy. The shepherds of the modern world — the Kerghiz of Central Asia, etc., visit to a farm; a week's diary of a shepherd; sheep and cattle in India, the Commonwealth and the world — what these lands can do for the world in the matter of food. (c) The next step in food: agriculture; how agriculture began; primitive tools of cultivation; to draw sketches of the tools and to make their models in the workshop; development of the plough and the growth of civilization — Egypt, Sumer, Greece, China, India. (d) Cultivation in the pupil's own locality; rotation of crops; modern tools; processes from seed to crop (direct study by visits to the farm); visits to agricultural shows; cattle shows, fruit shows, etc. (e) Distribution of food throughout the world: cereals, fruits, meats, fish milk, etc.

Note: Each pupil to develop in his own file a story of say: 'from wheat to bread', 'how jams are made and preserved'; pupils to collect pictures of food habits of peoples all over the world.

(ii) *Clothing* : (a) Early needs for clothing — material and methods — use of skins, leaves, bark of trees, grass; parts of the world using these materials even today; influence of geographical conditions and historical tradition on clothing. (b) Use of hair of animals and plants in weaving garments; taming animals and cultivating grass for the purpose. (c) Use of machinery in the making of material for clothing; fashions and tastes in clothing; varieties of material; leading countries of the world manufacturing clothing materials. (d) Clothing in the locality; needs

of the people; traditions in clothing — industry, trade; (pupils to collect samples of fabrics, dress dolls, etc.) (e) Clothing of the peoples of the world — cotton, wool, silk, rayon, nylon, etc.

(iii) *Housing*: (a) The use of caves and floating houses by the early man; how their needs were satisfied. (b) tents used by wandering nomads; mud houses on river sides; influence of geographical conditions on housing in different parts of the world.

(iv) *Transport*: (a) Transport in pre-historic times; similar methods today. (b) Use of animals for transport in modern times. (c) Invention of the wheel an important milestone. (d) Use of power in transport; methods of transport in the present world.

(v) *Communications*: (a) How to learn to speak; how man expressed himself in early days; development of speech; music and drama — language of the world. (b) How people conveyed messages in early times; early writing; written records of the ancient world.

Second Year : *The Homeland (India)*: The same topics of food, clothing, housing, transport and communications may be done in the second year in greater detail and with particular reference to India. Thus the work done in the first year will serve both as exploratory and as background for the study of the Homeland.

(i) *Food*: (a) Development of agriculture from the ancient times; various crops, methods of cultivation, implements used, irrigation and yield. (b) Land as property; landlords and farmers; land-tax; State control over agriculture up to 1900 A.D.; references from Manu Smriti, Arthashastra, etc. (c) After the Industrial Revolution — mechanization of agriculture — methods of cultivation, manure, crops, yield per acre; new relationship between state, landlord and land-labour. (d) Problems of food at present — food crops and cash crops — crops and climate; food and population; yield per acre; export and import of food; grow-more-food campaigns in the country. (e) Five-Year Plans and food — self sufficiency in food.

(ii) *Clothing*: (a) History of dress from ancient times to the present day; material, comfort and fashions in dress; climate and dress; foreign cloth; khadi and charkha movement. (b) How cloth is made; use of machinery; study of different samples of

cloth and styles of dresses; textile industry of India; handloom cloth; cotton, wool, silk, decron, etc. (c) Export and Import of raw material and finished goods; India's position in world both in manufacture and trade of textiles; market for handlooms in the world; position of ancient patterns of Patan, Surat, Lucknow, Banaras, Mysore, Dacca, etc.

(iii) *Housing*: (a) Story of the material used in housing from Mohenjo Daro to the present day; modern architecture. (b) Styles of houses: houses of kings, lords, people; different styles in different parts of the country; north and south style of temples, buildings. (c) Manufacture of necessary material; cement, steel, glass, etc.; export and import of material; India's position in building material today — in the Five-Year Plans. (d) Solving the problem of housing today; population movement — problem of the refugees; growth of new towns; town and country planning today; modern houses, factories, temples, public buildings, etc.

(iv) *Transport*: (a) Methods and means of transport in ancient mediaeval and modern times; roads, beginning of railway; old ships. (b) Roads, railways airways, and sea-routes in India today. (c) Pupils to collect information about all types of vehicles on the road, types of railway trains, (cargo and passenger) steamers, airships, transport used for the army. (d) Use of power in transport; man power, animals, coal, oil, atomic power; effect of modern inventions on transport; distances shrink with modern transport; one World.

(v) *Communications*: (a) From the invention of printing to the present day; use of books, press and the radio. (b) Influence of modern invention on communications; electricity, wireless, etc. (c) One World — how far achieved.

(vi) *Power Resources of India*: (a) Story of coal and oil — how they were made underneath the earth — mining; coal and its uses — position of India in the countries of the world; steam power and its uses. (b) Similar study of oil. (c) Water power: hydro-electric development in the country before and after Independence. (d) Atomic energy and its uses; its development in India. (e) Use of power in the development of Indian industries; chief industries at present, including transport and trade.

(vii) *Government of India*: (a) Ancient and mediaeval traditions in Indian administration. (b) Government machinery

under the British Rule. (c) Present Constitution of India and how it works — the work of the President, Parliament and the Supreme Court; Rights and Duties of an Indian citizen.

Third Year: The rest of the World

(i) *Neighbours of India:* South West Asia, South East Asia, Pakistan and Ceylon; study of geographical conditions; historical development and present position in agriculture, industry and trade; present relations with India in economic, cultural and political matters.

(ii) *Countries of the Commonwealth:* What is the Commonwealth? members of the Commonwealth; how they came to be in the Commonwealth; historical development of the Commonwealth; economic position (agriculture, industries, trade), cultural and political relations among the countries of the Commonwealth, with particular study of Pakistan, United Kingdom, Canada, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. India and the Commonwealth in economic, political and cultural relations.

(iii) *Great Powers of the World:* Study of the U.S.A., U.S.S.R., China, Germany, France and Japan with reference to the following: (a) Historical development of the country, shape, size, location on the map of the world, connections with the rest of the world by sea, air and land. (b) Physical conditions, climate, resources; minerals, agriculture and industries, before and after the Industrial Revolution; colonization, empire building and wars. (c) People — their distribution, traditions, culture and foreign relations.

(iv) *Africa and South America:* A general study with reference to physical features, climate, resources, industries and peoples, before and after colonization by the Europeans.

(v) *The United Nations:* The historical development of the UNO with reference to the League of Nations and its work; Agencies of the United Nations and the functions of each; member states of the UNO; constitution of the UNO; India and the UNO.

Fourth Year: Problems of the Modern World

(i) *Food, clothing and shelter:* (a) Food position of the world — fertility of land, pressure of population, climate and irrigation facilities; cash crops and food crops; distribution of

cereals, fruits, fish, cattle and sheep in the world; (Pupils to draw comparative graphs pertaining to the various parts of the world.) yield per acre in important countries. (b) Exporting and importing countries of the world; position of world food. (c) UNO and World food; the work of FAO; how to improve yield per acre; soil conservation; use of waste lands; reclamation of land. (Problem of clothing and housing could be discussed on the same lines.)

(ii) *Problems of Population:* (a) Distribution of world population; pressure of population and standard of living; underdeveloped countries and their problems. (b) Problems of health; work of the WHO; family planning. (c) Myth of racial superiority and purity of race; heredity and environment; developing understanding; work of UNESCO. (d) Problem of refugees in all countries; 'rehabilitation' of refugees; shelter and occupation. (e) Work of UNO's agencies in improving standard of living and developing understanding in the world.

(iii) *Exploitation of the Globe:* (a) Resources of the world—distribution of minerals. (b) Development of industries and trade based on minerals, before and after the Industrial Revolution. (c) Colonization, trade, empires, wars. (d) Problems of trade; self-sufficiency, problems of small nations. (e) Development of underdeveloped countries.

(iv) *Money:* (a) Co-operative stores of the school and co-operative banks of the locality. (b) Origin of money — from barter to bank; uses of money. (c) Moneys in different parts of the world; sterling and sterling balance. (d) Foreign exchange; difficulty of foreign exchange; trade and foreign exchange; India's industrial development linked up with foreign exchange. (e) Budget — India's budget; income and expenditure, sources of revenue — taxes; problems of saving; prosperity and happiness.

(v) *Problems of World Peace:* (a) On economic front: better standard of life for everyone; helping under-developed countries; no exploitation, no colonies. (b) On social front: equality of status; dignity of human being; need for better understanding; work of UNESCO; exchange of cultures; Human Rights.

7. Summary

To repeat again,

(i) These samples of the Social Studies syllabus are not for direct copying. They may prove useful to the teacher in planning out a programme of Social Studies according to the abilities of the students and the availability of resources.

(ii) Further, these several samples very clearly show that there is not, and there cannot be, only one method of organizing the Social Studies material.

(iii) If more than necessary details have been given under every topic, they are there for the teacher to choose from and not to kill the pupil's interest with.

(iv) The most important guiding principle in the making of the syllabus should be that it should be light enough to allow sufficient time for related activities, local studies and practical work.

(v) A modern syllabus cannot be covered in the classroom, but will compel both the student and his teacher to go out, and see and *experience* things for themselves; they will be compelled to use their hands and feet, along with their eyes and ears in learning. Then only learning comes closer to life.

Such a syllabus supports the view expressed in the Harvard Committee Report that education is not merely the imparting of knowledge from books, but the cultivation of certain aptitudes in the mind of the child.

CHAPTER VI

METHODS OF TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Present Position

EVERY experienced teacher knows that even the most perfect syllabus remains dead unless quickened into life by the right methods of teaching. If the objectives of the syllabus discussed earlier, are to be achieved, it is very essential to indicate the kind of methods which should be adopted and popularized for a successful teaching of Social Studies. It is proposed, therefore, to examine in this Chapter the prevalent methods of teaching Social Studies and to suggest improvement.

The situation is pretty bad at present as regards both the Social Studies teacher and the teaching methods. It has still not been realized fully by schools that for a proper teaching of Social Studies (as of English, Mathematics or Science) a teacher interested in the subject and trained in its methods is indispensable. Consequently, while English, Mathematics Science and even Physical Education and Art are taught by specialists in these subjects, Social Studies is generally taught in school by any teacher. The purpose of such a teacher naturally, is covering the syllabus, and the usual method with him is to read with the students the textbooks prescribed and to explain lessons to them orally in the class and dictate notes on topics considered important for passing an examination. The result is that Social Studies is badly taught, and a distaste for the subject is created in the minds of pupils.

As the Report of the Secondary Education Commission observes: 'At present in most of the schools teaching is dominated by cramming, and there is no determined attempt to check deterioration of standards of expression in speech and writing. The school programme is dominated by routine in which the teacher talks and dictates notes and students passively listen to the notes in the classroom and memorize at home, in order to pass tests and examinations. There is no opportunity and desire to acquire knowledge either for its own sake or for

life; the dominant motive is to scrape through the examination. Teaching of Social Studies is no exception to these observations.

2. Importance of Methods

For reasons pointed out elsewhere it is not only the amount of knowledge imparted or learnt in the class that matters but also *the way* in which it is acquired and the efficiency and thoroughness with which it is acquired by the students. Besides, with the great increase of knowledge of every kind it is quite impossible for a student to acquire complete knowledge of even a single field. Any attempt, therefore, to 'cover' a particular field is bound to fail. The teacher should necessarily concentrate, then, on two things: quickening of interest and kindling the mind of the pupil; and secondly, training the pupil in efficient techniques of study and learning. If through proper methods a student's curiosity and interest could be roused at school, he will always be able to acquire necessary knowledge whenever need arises in later life. Sir Percy Nunn remarks; 'The first duty we (parents and teachers) owe to the young we love is to help them to establish themselves firmly upon their own feet, and that the worst wrong we can do them is to make mere appendage of themselves.*' On the other hand, the readymade knowledge which is forced on the pupil through notes and guides not only dulls his mind but is quickly forgotten, as soon as the examination is over. The emphasis should, therefore, shift from the quantum of knowledge to the right methods of acquiring it.

It is essential that every student should be trained in the art of study. In a large majority of schools no attempt is made to train students in this basic skill. It is often presumed that anyone who reads a book (that is, passes his eyes over words and articulates them with his lips) studies it. This presumption is however wrong. Study implies several mental processes: ability to interpret words into appropriate meanings; the art of building up ideas; and the ability to sift important from unimportant details. These study skills cannot be acquired automatically but have to be practised consciously and continuously. The skills so acquired should be used by the teacher throughout

*Sir Percy Nunn: *Education, Its Data and First Principles*, p

the year. Thus the teaching of appropriate methods of study must form an important part of the school programme. Then alone will the pupil be enabled to catch up with the fast increasing boundaries of knowledge.

3. Motivation and Methods

The problem of methods is essentially the problem of motivating the pupil to activity. The skill of the teacher, the design of courses, the preparation of teaching aids, or the use of techniques — all depend for their effect upon their capacity to release and stimulate the dynamic powers of the student: to open up a perennial effort to activity, and *inner* urge to apply himself to worthwhile work. Our formulae all this time for stimulating pupils (or human beings in the society) to effort has been fear of punishment or a promise of reward. We thought, and still often think, that fear of God or Hell will make men moral beings; or the fear of the teacher and examination will make children learn. It is because of this belief that the rod and its philosophy 'spare the rod and spoil the child' became popular. So also the rank and the reward. It is wrongly believed that reward had been responsible for increased production on the farm or in the factory. It is still hardly realized that the formulae of punishment and reward work only for some time and do not go very far. They act only like a glass of wine and excite a person temporarily to work. On the other hand a constant fear of punishment keeps a person stunted in growth and does not allow him to develop initiative or be himself. Full creative energy cannot be released by fear and the person, therefore, runs below par like a powerful horse that is held back all the time under the reins. Those who are running a race all the time for rank and reward are spoiled by the race itself; by the spirit of competition which destroys all chances of group-work and co-operative effort. Competition spoils both: him who wins and him who loses. The winner begins to think too highly of himself and the loser loses all heart in the game and suffers from frustration. Fear of punishment, hope of reward, and competition which is at the root of the reward, can, therefore, hardly serve as effective motives and drive the youth into worthwhile activity which brings him joy and satisfaction.

The formulae of punishment and reward are not only positively dangerous but, are basically wrong, because they are based on the belief that human beings are by *nature* lazy and have to be goaded to activity with punishment and reward. The fact however is that human beings are naturally creative with a great urge to do and achieve something. Young children are more so: always active and restless to win approbation through achievement at school, on the stage or on the playground. Teachers who have taken interest in students outside the school will bear testimony to the fact that children who are often found indifferent and backward in classwork, are able to develop a personal interest or a hobby to such a degree that they prove themselves well capable of sustained effort and excellent memory for facts and details. The more carefully we look into the nature of children, the more shall we be convinced that young people are by nature creative and dynamic in their approach to life.

Laziness and indifference are 'symptoms of the sick and the maladjusted. In healthy children they are the results of discouragement and failure on the part of the teacher to appreciate their needs and interests. The teacher should, therefore, have a clear idea of his students' aspirations, needs and interests. He must accept them as individuals who are eager to learn and achieve. The teacher has only to be skilful enough to tap the right sources of their interest in work and the seemingly halting engine will suddenly take to its wheels. 'The first step in teaching any subject should be to lay the firm foundation of a love, by so presenting it as to tempt the pupil to a joyous pursuit. If this step be taken and wisely followed up, there is no need to eliminate the drudgery inseparable from any subject worth serious study.'* All this may sound as nonsense to a teacher who is faced with crowded classes and disheartened after working with 'D' divisions usually consisting of the so-called dull and backward pupils. Yet, what has been stated is all truth and no nonsense. All sincere teachers have experienced that sometimes, all of a sudden, a 'bad' boy is completely changed for the better, in a few months, as a result of a new approach. This is not a miracle at all. The intelligence of the boy, his physique,

* Sir Percy Nunn: *Education, Its Data and First Principles*, p. 166.

his surroundings — all have remained the same; what has happened is that hitherto neglected sources of motivation have been tapped and the boy has changed.*

Therefore, for the purpose of making children learn, the teacher should never rely on the formulae of punishment and reward which may often appear easy to administer and to yield quick results. He should rather try to discover the natural interests of his pupils and tap them for motivation. The most important keys for arousing interest in pupils are two: firstly, convince them that their work is useful; that they do their lessons, read books and undertake other activities not simply because the teacher so desires, but because what they do is worthwhile and it is in their own interest; secondly, treat them as persons (not as mere pupils) and take interest in them as such, this will at once go to improve the relationship existing between the teacher and his pupils; (such improvement of relationship say, between employer and employees has worked wonders in industry; it has been equally successful in the army. Experienced teachers tell us that improvement in teacher-pupil relationship has greatly helped in overcoming even the incapacity of backward children. How much more then should this be true of normal healthy pupils in the school! Why then should there be need for reward and punishment at all for healthy children?

It may be very useful for the teacher to remember some of the characteristics of children—characteristics which have been helpful in arousing children's interests and releasing their mental energy. Every child is, for example, *curious*: curious about life around and therefore always keen to know of things. Again every child has a natural desire *to do* something: to achieve, to create, and so to test and *prove* his own capacity and earn social prestige or recognition. The desire to be appreciated for capacity, achievement and small courtesies is quite strong in children, as it is in adults. So also is a desire to work in a group: a desire for comradeship in which all work together towards a fixed goal, each contributing his mite. These and others are natural desires of children and the teacher will do well to tap them as *motivating factors*: curiosity, creative activity, desire for recognition, group-work. It is also good to

*Refer to Appendix Projects.

remember that these factors do not operate, each in isolation or in a particular order. It is like catching fish; you should catch it as it comes.

4. Effect of Right Methods

It should be realized that methods are not merely devices for communicating certain items of information to the students. Methods react not only on the minds of the students but affect their entire personality, their standards of work and judgment, their intellectual and emotional equipment, their attitudes and sense of values. Good methods may raise the whole quality of their life; bad methods may debase it. While assessing methods, therefore, the teacher must take into consideration the change that has taken place in the personality of his students. He should not be satisfied merely with memorization and reproduction of facts of History and Geography. As in all good education, so in Social Studies, the teacher should look for not only what a student *has acquired* but also what a student *has become*. Here are a few important qualities and changes that a sincere teacher of Social Studies may look for in his students.

Perhaps the most important quality that good methods of teaching should develop in students is *love* of work and the *will* to do it well. Love of work could be developed in children through what is called 'identification'. In the field of industry it has been observed that efficiency in work and happiness increase appreciably, (i) if every worker knows well the purpose and importance of his own contribution to the progress of the industry; and (ii) if his relations with the employer and management and other officers are happy. The worker, then, begins to feel that the industry belongs to him and he does matter. The worker, in other words, identifies himself with the industry and so begins to love his work, takes increased interest in it, and indirectly increases his efficiency. Right methods of teaching, in the same way, should help the pupils to identify themselves with the subject matter of study: with the achievements and adventures of mankind, with the inventions and discoveries of science, with the struggle of man to find food, shelter and clothing; with man's problems of living together in the modern

world, and so on. If methods fail to develop in students a real attachment to the school work, and the will to put in the best effort in doing it well, education will fail in its purpose of training the mind and character of students.* 'The secondary school can render no greater service to the students, and through them to the nation thereby raising their standards of efficiency in everything they do and by creating the necessary attitude for it. The motto of every school pupil should be: 'everything that is worth doing at all is worth doing well—whether it is making a speech, writing a composition, drawing a map, making a book rack, cleaning the classroom or forming a queue.' It is well to remember that only proper habits of work, and insistence on them in every detail and over a long period of time will create the desired attitudes and right values in students. How deplorable, therefore, it is if teachers and students in school rest content with the minimum of effort, slipshod work and be confined to the study of 'summaries' alone!

This has resulted in a wrong impression among teachers and students that reproduction of words, phrases and pages from the book is knowledge. *Knowledge* really speaking ought to be the fruit of personal effort and of purposeful activity. What students merely memorize and reproduce is information. Information becomes knowledge only when students assimilate it and develop an ability to use it in new situations. Then alone knowledge is power, and wisdom is the grace of such assimilated knowledge. Hence the need for methods which demand of students *personal effort and participation* in activities, and which do not encourage only memorizing.

The teacher, therefore, instead of teaching the 'subject in a rigid sequence of lessons, will do well to offer endless opportunities for what may be described as 'active' learning by relating the subject matter to the life around: to contemporary events, to activities of the people in the locality, to newspaper reports, to film shows and so on. Such active study also shows to the student that all the answers to his questions are not to be, and ~~cannot be~~, found readymade in the textbook; that every answer could be found, or rather fashioned out,

* *Report of the Secondary Education Commission*, p. 103.

ACTIVE LEARNING

Every student must be enabled to understand, before he leaves school, that nothing is learnt well without his own effort.



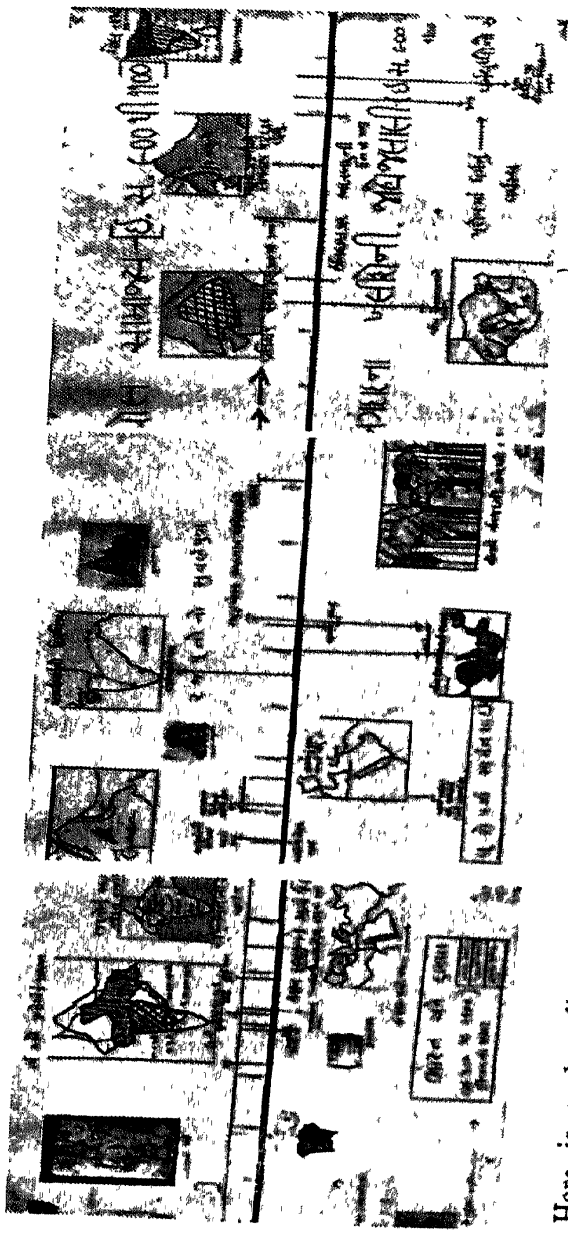
Above: A group of boys and girls manipulating experiments in the Laboratory while the teacher watches and guides with a smile.

Bottom: "Why should it not work"? the young ladies ask, while struggling with a machine. The teacher does not teach, he only directs and shares their anxiety.

(Experimental School, Baroda)

ACTIVE LEARNING

Learning is not merely reading from a textbook or reproducing from memory. Learning must lead to expression in all forms,



Here is a date line which shows in a small compass the development of six centuries. Mark the sketches drawn, pictures collected and pasted, and maps inserted to illustrate the study.

only with his own initiative, effort and hard work. Such active study encourages the student to search for himself into the material to be studied and thereby develops in himself a self-reliant attitude to study and also promotes intellectual adventurousness.

Through such active study, again, the student begins to understand the true nature of learning. A student who is confined to the narrow book-learning and acquires information only through a series of lessons (at the hands of the teacher) forms an idea that knowledge is static; that knowledge is a collection of facts which teachers and writers of textbooks alone know, but students do not. The student loses heart because he begins to believe he cannot catch up with teachers and writers. Besides, he develops a blind faith in what appears in print. We all know how faith in the printed page is exploited by the propagandist and advertiser in every sphere of life. The right methods of Social Studies should therefore bring home to the student that neither the teacher nor the books are perfect; that learning is a dynamic continuous process, an adventure in which the teacher and the student go together hand in hand; and that true knowledge is to be acquired through hard work and personal effort.

An important function of the methods of Social Studies should be to develop in students a capacity for *clear thinking* and an ability for *lucid* expression both in speech and writing. This has become rare today in schools. But never before was it so important for living as in the modern times. "The teachers' suggestive power should aim at building up gradually the critical truth-seeking habit, without which man, though born to be free, would remain everywhere in chains."* Therefore, whether a student is asked to make a speech or to write an essay, to draw a geographical chart or to perform an experiment in Science, the accent should always be on clear thinking, and on lucid expression which is the mirror of clear thought. All students cannot become eloquent speakers or good stylists but there is no reason why, through proper methods of teaching, every normal student should not be able to learn to speak

* Sir Percy Nunn: *Education, its Data & First Principles*, p. 149.

and write in such a way as to convey his ideas lucidly and intelligibly. Students often only repeat words like 'democracy' 'good Government', 'freedom', 'rights', 'revolution', etc., and hardly understand the full implication of these words. Words begin to have a meaning for the students only when they have acquired knowledge through personal effort and hard work. ~~and~~ the meaning becomes clearer as they get opportunities to use them in new situations. Students can be greatly helped in this by the teacher's skill in introducing these new concepts.

5. Warning to Teachers

The teacher, for example, from the very beginning, should not be in a hurry to complete the syllabus. He should begin slowly and work patiently to make the basic concepts very clear to the students. He should understand that once the fundamentals are grasped, students get involved in learning and gather momentum enough to cover the syllabus rapidly. But if the teacher moves fast and mechanically from the beginning, students lose all interest in learning and learn the words by heart in order to reproduce them at examinations. More harm is done to education today by a heavy syllabus and an impatient teacher in a hurry to finish the syllabus than any other single factor.

The teacher should not aim at too much at a time and not at too many details. What is true of good advertisements and posters is true of good teaching also. Devices like maps, graphs and charts should be used so that students learn at a glance and without much effort the broad facts of topics like the production of steel, cloth, cotton, in India and other parts of the world; India's trade with her neighbours; occupations of the Indian people; how people govern themselves; member-states of the United Nations Organization, etc. Much of the teaching again can be incidental and may not form part of a regular lesson. Occasional discussions of current topics will serve this purpose. Topics like direction and volume of trade, growth of population (births and deaths during the month), progress of the Five Year Plan, weather reports, etc., should be brought up to date in figures at least once a month and their significance emphasized in the morning Assembly. In the course of the

School Assembly, too, attention of students could be invited to significant events of national and international importance from newspapers: cold or heat wave, failure of crops, floods, earthquakes, etc. Students could be slowly introduced to important economic, political or social concepts without using any technical terms, if the teacher tried to present his material in a descriptive way. How we earn foreign exchange, how fashions develop, how oil found in Gujarat will affect our economy and industries, why house rents have gone up in towns, how the increasing university population has affected life and business of the place where the university is located, are some of the many topics which every teacher should try out for the purpose of making the basic concepts clear before the syllabus could be covered.

A 'so-called backward' student while making posters on hygiene for a week-end ACC camp learnt so much incidentally about Science and the language necessary to express scientific ideas. Another student making a model of a wall thermometer in the workshop could gather much useful knowledge about scale, degree, nature of mercury, and so on, without feeling that he was studying Science or Mathematics. Opportunities for such incidental learning (and the effort, initiative and application of knowledge it involves), not only remove the tedium of routine classroom learning but promote thought and understanding which are most essential in Social Studies. When these children grow up they will keep up the interest, developed earlier in social matters, and will not be among those who are indifferent at elections.

6. Skills and Attitudes

Good methods should therefore aim at developing basic skills and right attitudes in children. A number of attitudes, habits and character traits are of course derived from the student's family, playmates, neighbourhood and the general social setting and Social Studies should take neither credit nor blame for all of them. But there are attitudes, concepts, generalizations, skills and processes for which a Social Studies programme could be regarded responsible. Besides, these attitudes and skills are not only important for the successful

covering of the Social Studies syllabus, but are rather a permanent acquisition of the student and indispensable for a satisfactory and successful living in the community.

Perhaps the most important of the group of skills are the study skills, some of which have been referred to above. The man who becomes a successful farmer, doctor, mechanic or businessman has built upon the study skills acquired in school and practised later in social relationships. The skills, say, of finding material on a particular topic will be subsequently as valuable for the adult citizen as it is immediately useful to the pupil. The skill of collecting and compiling data, and the training to sift the relevant from the irrelevant is, therefore, not only a training for better learning of Social Studies, but through it develops in the student the skill required for making a correct decision so necessary for doctors, engineers or administrators. Thus, the study skills train the student both for the present and future living. In the same way the preparation of a bibliography is an experience which if repeated often in school becomes a permanent acquisition and a life skill in a student. The *details* may fade from memory but the *process* remains. The student who constructs maps and date-lines acquires mastery in the use and interpretation of scales and symbols — another important skill for a satisfactory living in the community because it helps to find one's way in the society around and so understand it better. The student who reads, makes notes, writes and reports in Project studies develops qualities which are of lasting value for him. The student who attacks current problems in Social Studies and consciously identifies the steps, each time, comes out with a technique which could be repeated, transformed and adopted to the solution of other problems in life. If the need for students to learn by experimenting, by trying again and again and checking results, is so important in Science and Mathematics, it is much more so in Social Studies wherein, by the very nature of the subject, conclusions cannot so easily be drawn. Ability to discover, verify, and evaluate information is essential for clear thinking and resolute action in matters pertaining to the exercise of the franchise and other rights of Indian citizenship; so is a knowledge and experience of procedures for voting. These skills can be considered basic to the training of effective

citizenship which is one of the main objectives of Social Studies in schools.

Even so, in the case of *attitudes*. Attitudes of, say, co-operation, helpfulness and understanding of other persons can be and should be promoted in the school and practised in social relations in order to become a repeatable and transferable permanent acquisition of the students. Skills and attitudes are however *not exclusive* commodities or qualities growing independently of one another. Attitudes are inevitably blended with study skills. Watch, for example, a group of students studying the physical features of their own locality: one drawing the map, another writing the description and still another making a clay model to illustrate the features in three dimensions, while a fourth one is taking photographs from various angles — all, later on, comparing and exchanging information and learning from one another. While they study they learn to co-operate, share experiences, understand the other fellow's point of view and help one another. While everyone has achieved something that is his own, they learn to rejoice in the achievement of the group — the total study of the physical features of the locality. In a similar way, in other situations might develop the attitudes of non-co-operation, hatred and selfishness.

It is well for the Social Studies teacher to remember that *experience*, good or bad, is the basis of attitude. If a newly admitted student is treated badly by the class or is not helped by the teacher, or is unable to adjust to classwork, he forms a hostile attitude towards the class, the teacher and the studies. Hence the need for activities and methods of teaching which provide for worthwhile experiences in the school, so important for building up of healthy attitudes.

Often the hostile attitude towards the school or the teacher may not be the result of the student's own experience but of information conveyed to him by friends. Then attitudes are built on *knowledge* that has been imparted. A student is introduced, for the first time, through books and lessons in the classroom, to several facts about the world around. It is for the teacher to see that facts which feed and strengthen healthy and desirable attitudes are included in the syllabus. Every teacher knows well how a distorted teaching of History in Nazi Ger-

many or in British India resulted in a presentation of half the truth, and therefore in the development of wrong attitudes. From this point of view let us examine, say, how and to what purpose, are the children still taught the invasions of Chengiz Khan, Mahmud of Ghazni and Taimur. If the teacher aimed at building up friendly and harmonious relations between the Hindus and Muslims in India, in his programme of Social Studies, the policy of Akbar and the work of Sufis and saints of the Middle Ages will certainly obtain prominence over fruitless (and often exaggerated) accounts of the Muslim invasions, conquests, conversions and massacres. Facts of Social Studies have, therefore, to be carefully selected and presented, and right experiences have to be made available for the formation of healthy constructive attitudes.

While facts and experiences both are at the root of attitudes, wrong attitudes can be better changed by experience rather than knowledge. It is one thing to teach a class that they should respect all races and religions and quite another to see that they treat members of other races and religions as their equals. Students are always told to walk in a line or help others or do social work in camps, but often in vain. The real solution is to build up in the school an atmosphere in which children of all races and religions will stay and work in peace, and to plan activities in which they share experiences, respect others and help one another.

Sympathy for others could be easily developed through imagination. Children's imagination is highly plastic and open to suggestion. To follow a sound maxim in education the teacher should begin with the child's own environment and bring him into direct contact with situations which demand his sympathy. From local environment to the far off lands and peoples can be a short cut with the help of travels, films and talks with visiting foreigners. This procedure develops in the child sympathy for other peoples whose habits and customs are different from his own.

While sympathy is based on imagination and is emotional, *co-operation* depends on understanding and is generally rational. The child begins to co-operate when he understands the benefits derived through co-operation and harm done through non-co-operation. The teacher, therefore, will do well to give his pupils

opportunities where they succeed through co-operation, understand its benefits and realize that all that is fine in the world of music, painting, architecture, philosophy, medicine or science has been achieved through co-operation of many men all over the world; and that very useful work is being done today by UNESCO, WHO or FAO. It is not enough, however, to make pupils merely aware of sympathy and co-operation. These impulses should become *habitual in their action*. Mere instruction will be of no avail, and a little sympathy and co-operation that has developed will be swept away by propaganda and press, if these impulses have not become a part of their mental make-up. The teacher of Social Studies should, therefore, give opportunities for frequent practice of sympathy and co-operation and should try his best to maintain his pupil's enthusiasm through a series of satisfying activities. Only then can the pupils be trained to build up right attitudes towards their fellow-men. As the *Report of the Secondary Education Commission* remarks, 'The student should be able to acquire not only the knowledge but the attitudes and values which are essential for successful group living and civic efficiency.*' What is important in Social Studies is not *what they know* but *what they become*, after they know.

7. Range of Interest

Good methods should further go to expand the range of students' interests. The intelligent teacher has numerous opportunities (in the class-room, in the course of projects, in the library, on the playground, during excursions, in the hobby-classes and during extra-curricular activities) to kindle new interests, to expand and strengthen existing ones and satisfy the students' natural desire to touch life at many points. It is by exploring such different avenues of interests and activities that the young student can truly discover himself and prepare for specialization, later. These worthwhile activities should, therefore, be a part and parcel of all good teaching. Hence the use of individual and group projects, in teaching, which create numerous opportunities for self-activity, self-effort and self-expression on the part of the students.

We have discussed earlier that students can put in their

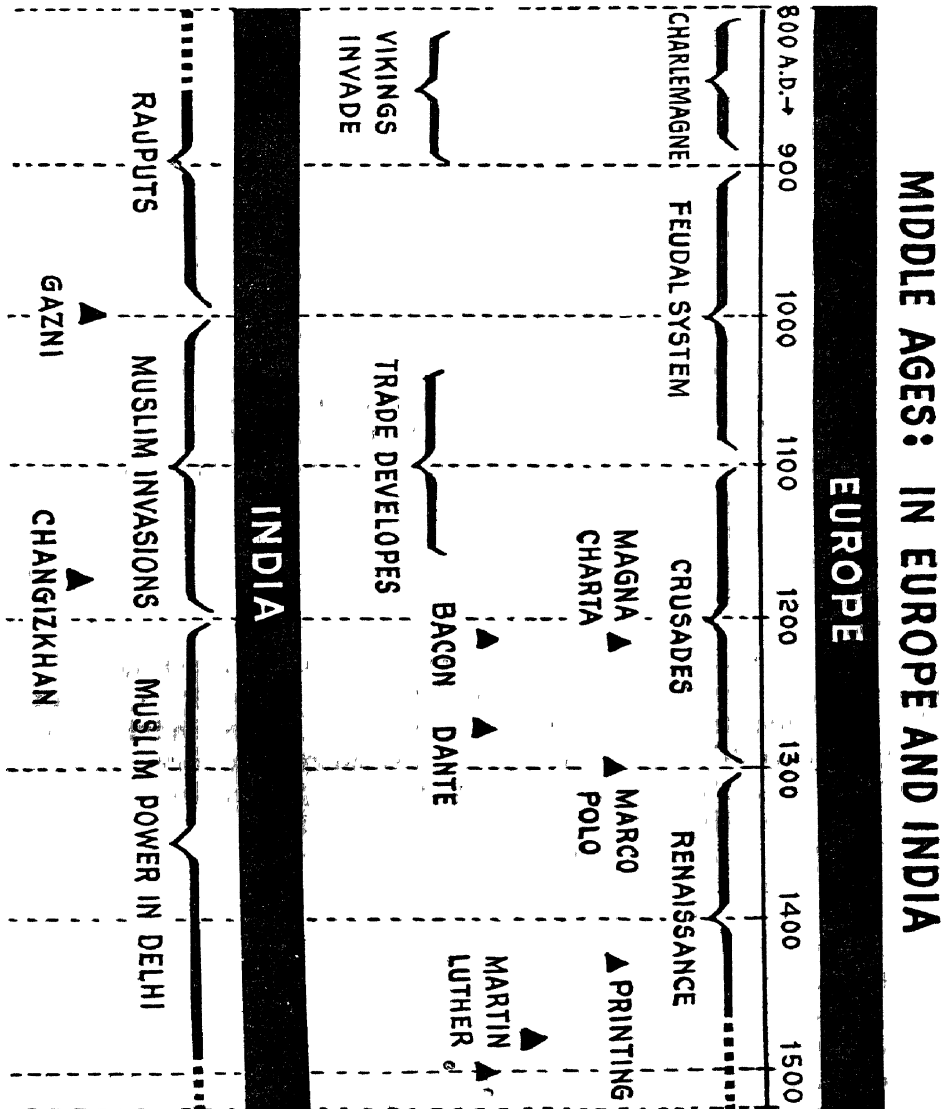
best effort and get engrossed in activities only when the *relationship between life and learning* is made manifest.* The business of the teacher is, therefore, to establish the link between life and learning, and plan the details of work in such a way that pupils, through excursions, research, projects and other constructive activities, bring the hand, the heart, and the head into fruitful co-operation. Further, opportunities should be created for pupils to use in a practical way the knowledge gained by them: they may draw geographical maps, graphs or charts, make models or arrange experiments in the laboratory, plan visits to historical places, stage historical plays, build up a history museum that will make history living, or undertake the preparation of write-ups, reviews of books, life-sketches of leaders, magazines and story books. In every case the collection of material from relevant sources, its selection, editing and actual writing, maps, book-binding or mounting on frames — will all involve application to other situations of what they have learnt in the class-room. The necessary condition for the success of such activity is that it should not be a task imposed on the students from above but should grow as a creative activity initiated, planned and carried out by them with spontaneity and zest. It is true that a good building, and equipment, a good syllabus and books are important, but definitely more important still are the ~~methods~~ of teaching that can bring the curriculum into closer relationship with the needs and aspirations of the young students.

8. Students Study File

It is advisable to encourage every student to maintain a study file. The study file will be a day-to-day record of the pupil's work and, therefore, a part of the learning methods. Every student will have his own file and he will use it for keeping his own notes and cuttings on the projects or on any other topics in which he is interested. Even children of twelve and thirteen also can keep such a file and select material—cuttings, pictures, extracts, etc. from newspapers, journals and library books—on topics such as dresses in many lands, occupations of people in different parts of the world, our imports from other

* *Report of the Secondary Education Commission*, p. 93.

countries, leaders and legislators, and the farmer's work all the year round, etc. The students will stick pictures and cuttings, develop diagrams, graphs and maps, and copy out extracts from the reference books on the topics of study. It is necessary that



students have more freedom in the making of the file. The teacher may have to help and guide the students more in the beginning. The weak and slow may take more of his time. The teacher will, however, see that once the students understand their work, they will enjoy doing it.

The file should also include a date line (preferably at the beginning) in which all important events and movements should be located as the study proceeds from the week to the month and from the month to the year.

Below the line may be shown events from Indian history and above it the corresponding events from rest of the world. Dates may be only a few but outstanding. On the dateline the student should mention (or stick the portraits of) great men of history, discoverers, scientists, artists, musicians, etc. The students should be helped to understand that with co-operative achievements of the afore-said we have been able to triumph over disease, poverty and ignorance. This helps to develop in them a sense of world citizenship without which one can never be called truly educated. Incidentally some of these — like Lincoln, Gandhi, Galeleo, or Luther may be adopted by the students as their heroes, whose life and work may teach them that those who became great later in life worked earlier in great difficulty and in spite of opposition and ridicule. The student may learn that he should refuse to yield to difficulties and ridicule and work with courage and self-respect.

The last few pages of the file may be kept for record. The record may be in the form of a diary or a log-book in which the student should enter datewise projects done, visits made, museums seen, library books read, discussions or lectures attended, films seen, etc., together with the student's own comments on each, if possible. Every student is a discoverer: a Newton or a Columbus in his own way. Opportunity should therefore be given to him to discover something of interest — say, in the farm operations, in the observation of the sky, in the study of birds or beasts, in industry and habits of the people — and collect all the material in the personal file for reporting to the School Assembly occasionally. Such reporting gives him a chance to speak before an audience and so trains him in its technique. Most of such work is naturally undertaken outside the school. It will therefore be a healthy occupation during leisure and may

involve the parents also in the activity. The activity brings a touch of reality to school work. The student develops a genuine interest in the world around, a love for countryside and an understanding of local traditions.

Such a file will be the student's own illustrated reference book on various topics. It will be a joy to the student to compile one such book individually all by himself and will develop in him the habit of working on his own and without supervision and a will for sustained effort. In this file the student gets a chance to do something during his free periods, and it becomes an outlet for his extra energy and creative activity. Slowly and over a sufficiently long period of time, such a file becomes a diagnostic material for the guidance work of the teacher. Through the file the student gets a chance to compare his work with that of others.

Perhaps the most important point in connection with this file is that of *assessment*. *The teacher should never give marks.* Then alone the idea develops that the file is personal — a record of personal achievements the student would like to be proud of. It should not be something that the teacher has *compelled* him to keep in order to pass an examination. If any pressure is brought on the making of the file, it loses its diagnostic value also. At the same time the teacher should always advise where advice is necessary or is asked for. Students do like teachers to take interest in their work, as long as there is no punishment attached. The teacher should compliment good work, but shabby work should not be run down in the class. The best books may be shown to the Headmaster for review in the morning Assembly. Here the good workers get the stimulus of social approval in their work and the slow may be stirred to better effort after seeing good samples. The teacher should see that even the most slovenly pupil receives the measure of praise that is due to him, because no work is entirely valueless; and secondly "it is the praise not comments that promotes effort."* Those who did not do the work or were slow in showing the files are perhaps among the few who are suffering from a sense of inferiority or are often snubbed and discouraged by teachers. If the teacher meets them patiently and pri-

* Hemming J. *Teaching of Social Studies*...Chapter V; p. 93.

vately, most of the trouble could be rightly understood and avoided. All the time the teacher will remember that the file is a *personal* affair and should be treated differently from other exercise books. It is then that the file can become a reliable record and can be used for assessing and improving the work of the student. Even the slow and the weak will profit more from such a file used for reference and revision than from the text-book or dictated notes to be learnt by heart.

It is better that the record is in the form of a file (quarto size) and not a note-book, so that sheets can be inserted or rearranged as desired by the student at any time. The sheets may be both ruled and blank: blank, used for drawing or sticking maps, sketches, newspaper cuttings or pictures; and ruled, for written work.

If the students had no such training before in the primary or secondary school, it is better to proceed slowly and guide them patiently. The first years may for example take more interest in *copying* maps, graphs and extracts than developing original ones. The first years may require more lessons from the teacher before they sit down to study on their own. It is in the first year that good habits of work (patience, neatness and concentration) should be insisted on. The children will have to be gradually trained in how to consult reference books, how to select illustrative material, how to plan the arrangement of material in the file and how to keep the record of the work done. But this will always be time well spent and not time wasted.

It is a good habit for students to keep a small *pocket diary* or a note book for making jottings in the street, at home or during visits. From these jottings the file sheet could be built up easily, neatly and systematically. Some schools insist on two types of note-books, rough and fair. But this is not necessary and is waste of both time and money. It is possible to train students in doing everything neatly and systematically. Rewriting is however important where a sketch map or dateline drawn hurriedly during class-room lessons is to be redrawn neatly or blackboard jottings are to be developed into an essay. Such copying helps memorizing better. It is in such a file that the teacher can look for the efficiency of his method and the development of those qualities in his students which are the foundation of social living.

9. To Summarise

(1) The methods of Social Studies should not only aim at imparting the knowledge of the subject but should also develop proper attitudes and habits of work in the students. Methods should create in them love of work and a desire to do it well—efficiently, honestly and thoroughly.

(2) The reward and punishment system of motivation has been proved not only inefficient but positively harmful. And the only basic source of energy with which the teacher can achieve his objectives is the pupil's own interest and initiative.

(3) The teacher can arouse the interest and co-operative capacity of the student only by building on his own needs, attitudes and aspirations; only by linking learning to some immediate objectives meaningful to the student.

(4) Hence the emphasis in teaching should shift from mere memorizing from books to learning from real life situations; hence the need for a regular use of community resources in school teaching so that learning is linked with life.

(5) The student can be further motivated as the result of a good social atmosphere in the classroom and the school, obtained through a happy relationship between teachers and students and by the use of stimulating techniques.

(6) In teaching, stress should be placed on clear thinking and clear expression both in speech and writing. This habit can be acquired only through personal effort in learning and by 'expression' work of all kinds, and through opportunities which the teacher can offer for incidental learning.

(7) The methods should also emphasize those basic skills and attitudes which are necessary not only for successful learning of Social Studies but even for living a satisfying life in the world.

(8) If the methods do not merely aim at covering the syllabus, but want to train the students in the techniques of study, enough time must be found for the students' activities and 'expression' work in the course of teaching.

(9) Hence in a proper education of the child "*How* he learns" is as important as *what* he learns. The teacher should respect the claims of both the syllabus and the methods.

(10) Every student should be encouraged to build up a Social Studies file which should be a record of his achievements and a mirror of his habits of work.

CHAPTER VII

THE PROJECT WAY IN SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Democratic Methods

LIKE swimming or cycling 'democracy', too, cannot be learnt from books or through mere classroom lectures; it should be *practised* regularly in daily life. At present there is too much of theoretical *teaching* of 'civics' and 'democracy' in the classroom, while there is almost no scope for any activities which allow students to *practise* the principles of 'civics' and 'democracy' in school life. Thus there is a *gap between theory and practice*, between learning and life, and it is for the methods of teaching to bridge the gap.

Democracy is based on faith in the dignity and worth of every single individual as a human being. The methods of teaching should, therefore, take into account every student's psychological, social or emotional needs. At the same time it is obvious that no individual can live and develop alone; and that every individual should learn to live with others and to appreciate the value of co-operation through working in groups and free interplay with other personalities. The methods of Social Studies should therefore try to develop those qualities in the individual which enable him to live graciously, harmoniously and efficiently with his fellow-men. It is the task of the methods of teaching Social Studies to find out ways of balancing the claims of individual differences with the development of group-life. In actual life, it is equally important to possess qualities of leadership and co-operation along with a capacity for personal initiative and independent work. At present both are neglected. The teacher will do well, therefore, to have in his methods of teaching, a balanced mixture of individual assignments and group projects. Individual assignments help the development of personal qualities, while well organised group work promotes qualities of co-operation and discipline.

We only talk of 'individual' differences in the training colleges, but have done very little in schools to meet their demands. It is not realized by the teacher that individual differen-

ces are a source of limitless inspiration and a challenge to his ingenuity. If a class were completely homogeneous and all students equal in all respects, then the teacher will find his work quite dull. Individual differences are, therefore, an asset and not a liability, a resource and not a difficulty. It is the attitude of the teacher towards the situation that will determine how the boys and girls would shape under him. An average class contains bright and dull, alert and listless, aggressive and submissive, receptive and weak pupils; the class is not only a replica of society, it is a society by itself. In a democracy, we accept, nourish, encourage and uphold individual differences; so should the school.

As is well known, individuals differ not only in intelligence and reading ability, but in temperament, home background, social maturity, energy and even habits of work. These differences must be recognized by every sincere teacher of Social Studies. Equally important is individual variability; an individual may not be able to read well, but can possess outstanding merit in drawing. A boy may not be interested in studying history but would excel in making life-like models. A girl may not like to write, but may make excellent collections of pictures and specimens of art. It has been observed that even mediocre students have often shown startling achievement when their interests are aroused and capacities discovered. A certain amount of study-work can, therefore, be individualistic (through assignments) because special aptitude and abilities of individual students are to be given their chance, but a necessary corrective to too much of self-centredness must be provided through co-operative study in the form of group projects. Group work is doubly blessed; it trains all the members of the group to enjoy a sense of personal attainment through group achievement — an essential lesson for the modern young citizen — and it saves that pupil from frustration who is unable to achieve success all by himself.

Much of the ineffectiveness of teaching in schools at present is due to the present practice of mechanically using the same methods of teaching for all topics and all types of children. As a result, the dull become discouraged and the bright suffer from frustration when the teacher teaches through a single

approach of an oral lesson in which he sees 'forty feeding like one'. The brighter children may respond better for example, to methods involving greater freedom, initiative and individual responsibility; whereas the dull or the average may require, in the early stages, more help from the teacher in planning and executing.'

Such an approach requires training of the pupils in independent study. Our students hardly form the habit of working independently. The result is that the teacher has to cover the entire course and teach the whole textbook through daily lessons. The pupils only cram what is taught by the teacher. On the other hand, if the pupils could be trained to cover a part of the syllabus through independent work, the teacher could concentrate better on the difficult and more essential portion of the syllabus. He could show the inter-connection of topics and arouse intelligent interest leaving some portion to be done by the pupils independently through 'individual assignments'.

Group work is not given its due place in our schools at present. Our students are not trained to co-operate in the course of study. During study, they are encouraged to struggle for personal attainment and compete for marks and ranks with their fellows. It is, sometimes, on the playfield or in the social work camps that the need for team work is emphasized. When these students grow up into adults—and we see them all around us—they are not able to co-operate with their fellowmen in public work and always adopt an individualistic attitude.

Even if competition were partly successful as a motivating factor, it encourages only the winner at the cost of the group, and has therefore no place in democratic education. The primary object of methods in a democratic education ought to be to lift up the whole group rather than to cater for the gifted few. Competition does not by any means provide the proper training for the art of living in the community. The genuine training of emotions, attitudes and social capacities takes place in co-operative group work.* It is the give-and-take of shared experiences that brings out the quality of leadership, develops habits of disciplined work and takes the individual out

* Montagu, A: *On Being Human*, p. 68 (Rupa & Co.)

of his mental and emotional isolation which is so dangerous for his healthy growth.

Even when the syllabus is prescribed by State Departments in our country, the teacher will do well to group and present the material of Social Studies in three forms: (a) material that could be covered by each student independently through individual assignments in which the student develops his capacity for independent work and is enabled to work at his own pace; the assignments will of course be graded in difficulty and detail, so that the dull student is not discouraged and the bright is not frustrated; (b) material that lends itself readily to group projects which are discussed in detail later in this chapter; and (c) material that must be covered by the teachers' link lessons; the teacher will select the basic facts to be studied by every student uniformly, and plan out the other details only to suit the capacity of his students and the resources of the locality in which the school is situated. In all cases however the teacher must recognize those individual differences in students and adapt instruction to their interests and range of experience; or he will not be able to win their active co-operation in the task of study.

2. What is the Project-way ?

What is a 'project', A 'project' is not an object: a chart, model or a map. A '*project*' is a way of teaching and learning. A project is described as 'a voyage of discovery in which the teacher and the taught are equal partners.' The goal is knowledge and training, the by-product is a chart, map or model produced during the voyage. Let us describe one such voyage* undertaken by a group of school children, in order to understand how a 'project' works and what it does.

A group of about fifty students whose average age was fourteen years was returning from the ACC camp organized in a small village about five miles away from Baroda. On the way the following conversation took place among the boys and

* Undertaken by the pupils of the Baroda University Experimental School: for report see *Education Quarterly*, Government of India: Sept. 1955, p. 280

girls: 'How very dirty the water was! Just a pond; and men and animals both drink from it.'

'And men wash their clothes, too, in it'. 'But they don't do things that way in our town.'

'Yes, in the town everybody has his own tap; and the water is so clean, and everybody has his own supply.'

'But something must be done to keep the village pond clean.'

'And to supply the village folk pure drinking water'.....

'And also to keep the mosquitoes off. Don't you know we couldn't sleep at all that night?'

So the talk went on.

In this casual but natural conversation the problem was raised and objectives were set up. The students saw the difference between the water supply of the town and of the village. They wanted to know what made the pond water impure and how it could be purified. They wished to know how in the town every home had its own water, but not so in the village. They had met and seen and talked with the village folk; they had felt they must do 'something.' In *this inner urge to know and do something that mattered to them*, are the roots of a Project.

Next day the students met their teacher in the school and raised several pertinent issues. They also said that 'something must be done'. The clever teacher found in this an excellent opportunity to undertake the study of local self-government also: What it is and what it does. This was a topic from the syllabus!

The class devoted two more sessions (of two periods each) to the discussion of the scope of the topic and finally decided to study the topic under five headings:

- (a) Who looks after the water supply of the village and the town? The panchayat and the municipality. How they are constituted and how they function?
- (b) What are the sources of water in the village and the town, How is water stored up? How does it reach the public?
- (c) What are the impurities of water? How can they be removed?
- (d) What is the duty of the public in relation to water? What does the municipality do about it?

- (e) How does the municipality pay for all the expenses in connection with water supply?

The class was then divided into five groups, each in charge of one aspect of study. Students had their own choice of the aspect of study, and each student had freedom to choose his own group. Of course, friends were allowed to flock together; but the teacher cleverly helped them to see that each one selected a group to suit his interest and capacity in order to do it well. Each group also took care to see that it had an able leader and included an artist, a discoverer, a good writer, 'reporter' and so on. The groups had also decided on the procedure of work. The work of each group involved three things:—

(i) to *know* about the subject of their study and collect all possible information from books, visits, films and even to meet experts for information; (ii) to *express* the information so collected in a proper form, that of a story or report, and make it concrete with the help of charts, maps, photographs, sketches, etc. (iii) to *present* their reports (and charts etc.) to the whole class once every week for a check up and sharing of experiences.

The whole study was to be completed in four weeks. The time allotted was two regular periods from the timetable every week, which means an hour and a half at a stretch, for group study, reporting and preparation of charts, etc. Visits and other out-door work was done by students out of school hours and on their own. The teacher helped them with letters of introduction and other instructions regarding the collection of information. The teacher was always present at every stage of the study and moved from group to group, watching, correcting, guiding, encouraging. The art teacher and the craft teacher and the language teacher co-operated to help each group in drawing their illustrations, in making models and in writing out reports of their work. These teachers found here an excellent opportunity to observe how the students were using their knowledge of art, craft and literature in Social Studies; their originality, in sketches, sense of colour, skill in making models; their capacity for composition, in reporting and good handwriting.

The members of the group consulted many books and saw films on 'water,' 'municipality' 'diseases' and so on. Singly or in groups they visited ponds, lakes, rivers, wells and other sour-

ces of water and brought samples of water which they examined in the school laboratory for various kinds of impurities. They found out the difference between hard and soft water, and studied the uses of water by doctors in hospitals, in railway engines, in homes, and so on. They met several types of persons, asked them questions and studied the answers received. They invited the health officer of the town and a professor of chemistry from the college for a discussion of the purification of water and how it was done in the town. They visited the municipal plant for water purification and the overhead tanks, and studied how pipes were laid to supply water to every home. They obtained figures from the last five years' budget of the Municipality and studied how much was spent on water-supply and how the expenditure was met. They saw for the first time that tax was both direct and indirect and there were principles to decide the nature and amount of every tax. They also studied the work of the department of the Municipality that looked after water supply, and were astonished to see that there was an army of people working behind the scene and in close co-operation, otherwise we would not get water in our tap. They prepared posters (e.g. 'how water becomes dirty,' 'water brings illness' etc.) for the village where they had their ACC camp. These posters were very educative for the village people. All the groups met and presented their final report as scheduled after four weeks; and put up an exhibition of all the illustrations made and books consulted. This was the culmination.

In this way was completed the study of 'Water Supply in Town and Village'. In this way was a project born and carried out.

3. What has happened in the course of the Project

Let us turn once again to the details of the Project and see what has happened on the way. What has happened to the teacher's lessons, to the reading from textbooks to the students' interest in studies, to the examination, to the relation between the teacher and the taught or between the school and the society outside. Let us see how all this has been different in a Project from the usual method of instruction.

The first thing, and perhaps, the most important thing, that

has happened is that study has *cut across all regimentation and rigidity* of the timetable and the syllabus; yet the study has never gone astray. Barriers between subjects broke down; chemistry, local self-government, composition, drawing, excursion, craft—all have mingled together. There is no division like curricular and extra-curricular activities; in fact the extra-curricular activities (visits) made the curricular activities possible and meaningful. Here is natural correlation between subjects and a healthy co-operation between teachers, so that every subject enriches every other. The student is not merely taught *about* reality; he has *made* contact with it; he has *learnt* through experience. From the beginning to the end the Project has become an adventure in learning for both the students and the teachers. Every individual student had to undertake his own 'voyage of discovery' and had to find his own way in living out his own experience. He *must* seek and find; he *must* experience, fail and succeed; he *must* adjust and re-adjust; in fact 'he must live dynamically in interrelation with the world of men and things about him.' This is the real training the Project has given him. For taking *interest in work*, again, the students have not to be promised ranks, marks or prizes, nor are they punished. The teacher's word of praise in the group or the class and the headmaster's congratulations in the School Assembly have been more than a reward and enough encouragement for doing the work with joy and zest. Recognition of work at all stages and in all forms has worked wonders. *Social recognition* has been further secured by arranging the exhibition which the teachers, students, parents and the public all are invited to witness. Similarly, a Project on '*survey*' may be sent to the local municipality for remarks and good Projects may be published in journals. The teacher should remember that the more the students are made aware of a social purpose in their work, the richer will be their learning experience and the more meaningful their study.

All students have been working together for a number of periods, for days together in close co-operation with one another and with the teacher; finding facts out from the library or films, making wall-charts or models, collecting pictures and specimens, compiling study files and albums. Every one would

admit that working together in teams on a job promotes the growth of good friendly relationships and vigorous group-life. The individual, while working in the group, feels safe from hurting ridicule and frustration of ordinary classroom lessons. In the Project he is at liberty to experiment without being penalised for failure. In a purely subject-matter study, there would be no scope for activities and a student who is unable to answer subject-matter questions would be soon exposed for failure and blamed for inadequacy. For the weaker student, in particular, such bookish learning is almost killing. In group work his contribution however small is welcomed and valued. In the group, failure is nothing more than a challenge to try again. 'Never let the child lose heart: for once he has lost heart, he has lost everything.'* Activities of the Project have offered shelter and encouragement to the students who are subjected to the endless despair and discouragement of a bookish curriculum. In the group he knows that help and encouragement are always ready. Students who have plenty of failure at home found compensation in the group work, full of life and achievement. The bright students also benefited because they got a chance to unfetter their minds among the limitless possibilities offered by the Project, while at the same time enjoying the team spirit and comradeship of group work.

Frequent reporting and discussion of the work done has given the students an opportunity for *sharing experiences*, exchanging information and correcting the errors. They have to write and rewrite, and write often times after correcting errors and accepting suggestions. This is excellent training in composition, skill in discussion and practice in handwriting. More valuable than these *skills* perhaps are the traits of character they develop through these activities: readiness and patience to listen, understand and appreciate the other's point of view and co-operate in taking decisions—qualities so rare at present yet so indispensable for healthy democratic living. In the Project, therefore, the teachers get a rare chance to observe the development of qualities of democratic citizenship like toler-

* Burt, Cyril: *The Backward Child*. Chapter XVI p. 624 (ULP 1937). The whole chapter is worth reading if time permits. It is full of valuable suggestions.

ance, co-operation, a sense of responsibility, concern for others and a social purpose. These observations can be recorded in the Cumulative Record Card and used for guidance work.

The Project forges *a link with life outside* the school by encouraging students to write letters for information, further literature and visits; to invite parents and other resource persons for discussions; and to make use of newspaper cuttings, the radio, bulletins and current periodicals, in learning. During the Project, the school has become more and more a place of living: autocratic methods of teaching gospel truth from the high platform have given place to democratic methods of seeking to establish joint responsibility, a sense of partnership, enlightened critical attitude and a willingness to compromise. Students working in a Project, come to realize that society is an intra-dependent organism and through it the individual reaches his fullest self-expression. It is through group discussion that students develop ability to reason critically and know the true from the false. As a result of group work, prejudices and antagonisms give way to saner outlook as was once observed by the author in a school where students in the ninth and tenth classes (age-group 14-15) had arranged a group discussion on 'Students' Strike and Discipline'* As a result of this after two weeks of discussion, it was decided that whenever the students wished to go on strike, there should be prior discussion of the issues involved. It is now two years and the students of the school have never gone on strike because they have found that the occasions were not worth it.

Some parents and teachers who visited the Project exhibition criticized that it was *more fun than study*, and that because of the Project work students did not return home in time. The Project was certainly fun: but it was study, and serious study, too, as was shown by examination results. The students understood better and retained longer what they learnt through the Project. If they did not return home early, it can be argued that the Project study was more absorbing than the routine oral lessons.

Projects are meant to teach and not to entertain, though both staff and students often find entertainment in them. This

* Complete report published in *The Progress of Education*, Poona.

IN A PROJECT

The project-way offers endless opportunities to the student to express himself through different activities.



Consulting various sources of knowledge: the museum, the library or the weather corner.



(Experimental School, Baroda)

IN A PROJECT



Discussing informally with teacher;



Arranging exhibitions

Preparing charts



(Experimental School, Baroda)

misconception is rather due to our wrong notion that students study only when they sit neatly on the benches and look into their books. As Cyril Burt puts it: "If in the hope of disciplining the youthful mind we make its tasks distasteful, the unpleasant associations linger on and infect the students' subsequent attitudes towards the whole of the study." The Project however has achieved both discipline and learning, by making the task not distasteful but delightful. Along with the traditional 'What' of a subject the students have learnt a good deal of 'how' (habits, attitudes, insight); but it is not always obvious to the superfluous observer, because it is not so easily measurable. That is why perhaps parents (and some teachers too) often complain that formerly children used to know all the tables in Arithmetic and all the dates in History or all names of rivers and mountains in Geography by heart; now they do not. Such knowledge no doubt has its use, but its acquisition alone is no education. In criticism of this nature two important facts are overlooked: that facts memorized without any context or association are rapidly forgotten; secondly, that the present generation of students, though weak in reproducing dates and names by rote, are mentally livelier, more aware of the contemporary scene and more capable of researching and solving problems on their own than their predecessors. Schoolboys for example, *have* shown intelligent interest, through the reading of newspapers, in the 'Reorganisation of State-boundaries' or 'the Five Year Plans' or 'drilling for oil in Gujerat' but of course at the cost of marks (!) in formal studies.*

At the same time, the students will certainly master and be able to reproduce these facts also, provided interest is aroused; provided they are convinced that what they have learnt does matter to them. A girl of Std. VII never remembered any dates or facts of History and used to argue that she was not interested in the dead and gone. But after the revision Project** in which she was one of the group leaders, she became almost an authority on the British Period in Indian History. A boy supposed to be dull and backward in Science could advise his village folk on the problems of water after the completion

See Appendix : Projects

Ibid

of the water Project described earlier. Such learning is not a task but a joyous experience. Its effects remain long after all traces of forced study have disappeared. What is really at issue in all such assessment is *whether our primary educational objective is to inculcate facts or to build personality*. The examination test given on Project study showed: (1) 'that the students acquired new knowledge; (2) that the students were able to apply the knowledge acquired to new situations; (3) that the study had proved their ability to think intelligently; and (4) that the students had shown self-confidence to participate in the activities and had enjoyed this method of study. "We have paid excessive attention to *what* a child learns, and too little attention to *how* he learns, though it is the latter quite as much as the former which determines his development as a human being."* The personality traits and qualities of democratic citizenship which the teacher observes may appear to him a by-product while his primary concern may be the covering of the syllabus and all his emphasis may be on the passing of an examination by his students. While the syllabus and examination do have a place in education, it is not the first place that they should occupy. They are the means and not the end: means to be employed to bring about in the students development of the traits and qualities mentioned above.

Efficiency of the Project-way of study should be measured, therefore, by 'the extent to which it motivates the whole child in the exacting business of learning, and by its success in providing width of knowledge and understanding,' not by mere marks obtained in the examination.

4. Pattern of a Project

The account given above makes clear the following points about a Project :

- (1) The teacher announces the topic of study; and helps the students to understand through discussion the different aspects of the study-unit. Students are free to make suggestions which may be considered and accepted. The objectives of the study are discussed, and stated precisely and clearly.

* Jack, M. L. : *Total Education*, p. 72

- (ii) Time for the study is fixed; and intervals for reports are suggested.
- (iii) The whole unit is then split up into parts; and a complete list of material available for study at home and sources from which material should be obtained, is prepared. Thus a programme of activities to be undertaken, books to be read, films to be seen, visits to be planned and other resources to be consulted, is prepared.
- (iv) The sub-units are distributed among the individuals or groups according to their abilities and interests.
- (v) Now, group study starts. Each group makes a note of resources consulted and work done. Films, the radio, interviews, books, pictures, visits are all tapped for information and study. The raw material of knowledge thus gets ready.
- (vi) Each group tries to report as it studies; a report of work done is written out; maps, charts, models, graphs, sketches are prepared to illustrate the study.
- (vii) Groups meet at intervals and present their reports together with illustrations. Comments are made and questions are asked by the rest of the class; mistakes are corrected and the work of the groups is co-ordinated into a whole through sharing of experiences and information.
- (viii) Thus, at last, a final report of the study is prepared by the whole class, and presented to the whole school for comments and recognition.
- (ix) An exhibition of all the charts, models, collections made and resources consulted by the groups, is arranged. This is the culmination. A Project has come to an end.

5. Limitations of a Project

While the Project-way is at once the most dynamic and the most democratic method of teaching, it has its limitations, its difficulties and its warnings too. It is advisable that both teachers and schools make a careful note of these in order to reap the full benefit of the new approach.

- (i) Every teacher for example, *cannot be forced to undertake a Project*. Projects should be discussed at staff meetings. It will be soon found that some teachers are enthusiastic, some indifferent and others opposed to them. Projects should be be-

gun with those teachers who are in their favour. Others may be allowed to watch and learn, and join later if they so desire. If the teacher or students did not have any experience of working out Projects before, it is better to start with some very small Project first and with a single activity: say, a group preparing daily weather bulletins and reading it in the Assembly; or a group collecting pictures of various dresses from periodicals to prepare a story of the dress; or farmers' sons and daughters bringing specimens of soil and standing crops for a story of local agriculture. Such work, mostly out of school hours and lasting over a few days, gives the teacher and his students preliminary training in active study, which serves as good background for launching systematic Projects.

The background for study-Projects could also be prepared through organizing Projects in extra-curricular activities like celebrations, social-work camps, or picnics; activities where success depends on group work and co-operative effort. In other words good preparation both for staff and students is necessary in passing over from passive learning from the textbook to active learning through worthwhile experiences. The teacher, therefore, should never be in a hurry to start and finish a Project. Plenty of periods should be devoted to discussion, at first, so that students develop self-confidence and understand clearly the details of the work. The topics selected for Projects should be simple, at first, interesting and within their experience. The success of the Project depends on the readiness of the class to start *on their own* with confidence and zest. When the class reaches a reasonable level of competence in 'active study,' more ambitious Projects may be attempted.

Students should always be free to make suggestions on the details of the Project. The teacher will find that many of their suggestions are practicable and could be accepted. The teacher's guidance will of course be very necessary so that the group does not opt for an activity without proper thought. Such pupil-teacher planning develops further self-confidence and readiness to assume responsibility in students.

(ii) *Group Work* is the essence of the Project-way of teaching. The class should be divided into groups of 5 to 8 students each. A class of 30 to 40 will have thus five to six

such groups. For every new Project the members of a group should change so that grouping does not become mechanical, static and 'corrupt'. Friends, of course, should be allowed to work together. Every group should have an able leader from among themselves who can guide and get work done. Every group, if possible, should have its 'experts', an artist who can help in drawing charts, graphs, pictures; a craftsman who can help in the making of models; an explorer who can plan visits; and resourceful persons who are fond of library reading and are good at finding necessary information. The different members of the group work together and present a group report of work done periodically to the whole class. Such group-work trains pupils in cooperative study and research.

Link lessons are as important as group-study. The class will certainly enjoy occasional lessons from the teacher for a change, and might show a level of attention and questioning far above the response found when all lessons are passive. It is through the link lessons that the teacher can coordinate the work of the students, to give it coherence, bring out the inter-relatedness of units, give proper emphasis to facts and events, and fill in the blanks in knowledge left out by Projects.

(iii) It is not necessary, not even desirable, that all the schools—large and small—should have *the same Projects, done in the same way*. Scope should be given to every school, and even to every class, for experimentation. Each school may plan its own scheme of work based on the local resources available.

A Project should not be too long; it should be fairly short and concentrated. Just as students are anxious to begin and work out, so are they anxious to finish and experience the joy of having completed a task. If the teacher desires to cover a wide field of human experience in a Project—for example the settlement of the Aryans in Aryavarta (1500 to 500 B. C.) for class VIII (13 year olds)—then it is better to make it a broad study, rather than a detailed one. The teacher's enthusiasm to deal with every aspect, in full detail, may result in boredom and complete loss of interest. It is not difficult after a little experience to assess the 'span of attention' of a group and the teacher should decide on the duration of a project accordingly. If a subject grips the group, the interest created should be fully

utilized but excess should always be avoided. A class of ten-year olds was asked to work on a project on 'Our Dress' for one full month, working five periods a week. In fact, such a group should not have projects of over one to two weeks with not more than two periods of work per week. The seniors may work on a project for a month and again, not more than two double periods a week. We cannot however lay down rules. As in the preparation of the study-units, the teacher should be guided by the interest of the students and the nature of the subject matter.

One project need not be followed by a similar project along the same lines. The industries of Gujarat need not be studied in exactly the same way as the industries of Bengal or those of India. The teacher should try to change the approach because a change is both refreshing and presents a new point of view. Even the topics, say the industries of Gujarat and Bengal, should be separated by a period of a month or two. Then the students would get a better chance to revise the first study and compare the two. Again, some projects lend themselves easily to intensive treatment, some to extensive treatment. The teacher should try to use both the types to provide variety and so sustain the students' interest in work. Variety however should not be allowed to militate against integrated learning. The human mind thrives best on co-ordinated variety and least on monotony or unnatural correlation, the teacher should note this.

(iv) *The teacher's work* in a project is very hard and his responsibility great. While planning a project the Social Studies teacher should invite for discussion teachers of Literature, Mathematics, Science, Art or Craft. This helps immensely towards the success of the project and also in avoiding overlapping or repetition. Frequent meetings and discussions with other teachers helps to develop integration of the curriculum and co-operation among the staff. The Social Studies teacher will be called upon to watch, direct and co-ordinate the students' work at every stage so that the treatment does not become superficial or a mere accumulation of information. He should restore balance to the study by means of link lessons wherever necessary.

While moving from group to group and watching them at activities or reporting, the teacher should observe students for their personality traits (honesty, intellectual adventurousness, perseverance, neatness in work, initiative, co-operation, etc.) and their special interests, and should use these records for guidance work. It is better, therefore, that the Social Studies teacher is also a language teacher and a class teacher in charge of cumulative records of the class.

(v) The teacher need not try to cover the whole syllabus through projects. Let the class have *a few Projects**—even two per term—but *they must be very well done and honestly assessed*. As pointed out earlier an exhibition or a report to the inspector is not the aim of a Project, but a by-product; the success of a Project will be judged not by the *amount* of information collected, or facts learnt and illustrations made, but by the changes that have taken place in the *attitudes and study habits of students; by their willing participation in the activities; by a desire to know facts and use them; by a change in the tone and atmosphere of the school; and by a continued use of democratic methods of teaching in other subjects of the curriculum*. Students learn by doing and they do not learn what they do not practise. The result of a project should affect the students' learning. If the emphasis in a project is on the finished *product* (maps, models and reports), and not on the *process*—how students learn to do it—then the project as a method of study has failed in its purpose.

6. The Problem Approach

The problem approach to teaching has certain definite advantages in involving the young student in the process of study. A problem implies some difficult experience, common to all, which the student himself can well understand and be concerned with. Topics such as the Industrial Revolution, Our Five Year Plans or working of the Village Panchayats can be readily presented in the form of problems. For example, 'How did people adjust themselves to the use of the machine?' 'How to find Money for the Plans?' 'Why our Panchayats are not successful?' and so on. The problem holds out a challenge and offers

* Outlines of some sample Projects are given in the Appendix

the young students prestige for being capable of dealing with it. Topics of History are sometimes only chronological statements of facts and events and appear dull to the student because he has nothing to do with them; instead, if the facts and events of History are arranged round a problem and used as resource material for tackling it, then the facts and events which appeared so dull before, become all-absorbing. Adolescents are intensely interested in people *as people*, and therefore, in problems people have to face. The material of Social Studies, if presented in the form of problems, produces a high degree of motivation for any difficult study that is before them. General Science and Social Studies are among school subjects more capable of a 'problem' approach.

A problem—and more definitely a 'current problem'—as a teaching device has another advantage: it does not allow students to depend on mere book-learning and on the teacher's notes. Students over-dosed with bookish and factual material begin to feel that every problem has its cut-and-dry solution somewhere in a book. Such students are very much disappointed, when they become lawyers, teachers, doctors, engineers or business managers where mere book-learning does not help them at all. Again, a student who is too much spoon-fed by the teacher's notes and textbooks becomes passive in the long run and refuses to face problems. The 'problem approach' is an active approach, and trains him to take initiative and shoulder responsibility, and so master the situation. He becomes self-reliant in searching for solutions of problems and struggles for them. Such self-dependence alone develops a sense of responsibility in students. No textbooks will be able to provide a ready-made answer, for example, to questions such as: 'How the boundaries of States have been changing during the last five years'; 'How weather has been so different in Gujarat this year from what it was last year'; 'What trends the study of this year's Municipal election indicates'; 'How the rehabilitation of refugees in this area has affected business and agricultural production'; 'What Lothal has to add to our knowledge of Ancient Indian Culture'—and so on. Of these and similar problems, the students cannot find an answer in the textbook. He will be compelled to refer to

newspapers and journals, listen to the radio and discussions, visit places and meet people.

It is never the purpose of the 'problem approach' to enable the students to solve actual problems, nor are their solutions expected to be the right solutions to the problems. A group of girls who look after the mid-day refreshments of the school, may know much about the rising prices and the black market but cannot, and should not, be expected to suggest ways of checking prices or stopping black markets. It is fun for the students to run the school themselves for a day in the year, but it cannot be said that the students will, therefore, be trained to organize and administer schools. These problems are too intricate even for adults, and require the background knowledge and maturity (which students do not possess) to understand their full significance. Playing the food minister or running the school canteen for a day or holding mock Parliaments is important, therefore, only so far as it trains the students to take initiative and do a given job with responsibility. *Current topics* are more, therefore, a part of *method* rather than of the *syllabus*: the emphasis is not on the solution, but on the personal and organized effort and the struggle to use all resources in order to arrive at a solution. Current topics, and local studies discussed next, are a sure way of weaning the students from the 'textbook' method of study.

Perhaps the most important purpose of 'Current Problems' is to link up Social Studies with the contemporary world around and so bring it nearer to life. Hence the best method to introduce current affairs is to link them up with the topic of study in hand, and not to have separate current topics periods in the timetable. A timely reference to a current topic often makes excellent introduction to a study or helps to link up the present with the past. That is how a teacher introduced the new steel towns of India with a reference to the progress of the Plans, and made use of the Untouchability Removal Bill for the study of the caste system. There are bound to be some current topics which are important enough to stand by themselves and need a more systematic study: e.g., Progress of the Plans, Reorganisation of States, Floods in Assam, the President's Rule in Kerala, Municipal Elections,

the Budget—these are the topics of this nature. One thing is certain; Current Topics will need better preparation and cleverer techniques than the set topics of the syllabus. If carelessly done, Current Topics degenerate into political gossip and a haphazard study. To reap the full benefit, Current Topics should be properly planned and thoroughly executed in the manner of the projects: collecting and weighing of evidence from newspapers and other resources; group discussions and reporting; preparation of illustrations, exhibition and so on. The study of Current Topics is better done, therefore, by senior students than by juniors. The outlines of a few Topics studied in the Project-way by some schools are included in the Appendix for the teacher's guidance.

7. Local Studies

It is common knowledge that students learn by proceeding from the known and familiar to the distant and the unfamiliar. The teacher of History, Geography and Language has perhaps often utilized the child's local environment for a start in learning. Local environment can become the best starting point for the development of any topic in Social Studies, for the simple reason that the studies are 'social' and the nearest society of the student is the local environment. The locality offers the greatest opportunity for direct study through first-hand experience. It is through visits and first-hand experience that students begin to have a clear idea of distance, map-reading and map-making, area (of farms, forests), heights (of hills), land forms (seen by the eye), weather (hot, cold or humid), seasons round the year, site (of forts and bridges), natural defences (by means of rivers, hills or forests), settlement, occupations, living habits and institutions of people, and how they are determined by factors both historical and geographical, natural routes, growth of towns and so on. It is only through the direct study of the locality—its geographical background, historical development and the working of its institutions—that the students build up clear concepts of the basic facts in Social Studies. It is only in terms of the distant and unfamiliar world. The study of the locality will act as the yardstick to measure the rest of the world. It is necessary, therefore, that the local

study is carefully done so that the yardstick may be reliable and accurate. If the teaching of Social Studies is to be real, scientific and humane it must be continually based on what is *known by experience*.

As in the case of Current Topics, it is no use keeping fixed periods in the timetable and prescribing a fixed syllabus for the study of the locality: it simply cannot be. With occasional periods for introducing, stock-taking or co-ordinating the details of the work done by students, most of the study of the locality will be done out of doors and in leisure hours. The success of the locality study therefore entirely depends on the resourcefulness and sincerity of the teacher. He himself will have to study much; plan the programme very carefully and guide the students continuously in carrying out the programme. In a village school, Std. VIII (13 year olds) carried out a sample survey of ten random families of landlord, school clerk, a farmer, a labourer, a washerman, a grain-dealer and so on to study the 'family': how it is made up, how it lives and what it does. In another small school in a hilly area the students of Std. IX (14 year olds) carried out a full survey of the aborigines (Adivasis) to study their mode of living: how it conforms to the geographical setting. A city school children in groups prepared a survey of the locality from which they came: they drew the map of the locality; and indicated roads, schools, places of worship, factories, markets, gardens, the railway station, and the Government or Municipal buildings and so on on the map. Then through interview the students collected information about the kind of food available, the activities of the people, methods of obtaining water, earning members of the family, kind of taxes paid and so on. The students also observed the types of houses (roofs and rooms) in the locality and the dress that the people used. All this work was done out of doors and under the guidance of an intelligent teacher. Two of the surveys mentioned above were done as part of holiday excursions and ACC camps. The last one was done by the students during leisure hours at home. In the same way the teacher can utilize long vacations for more detailed surveys. The last month of the year, just before the annual examinations, is generally used for 'revision': the local studies through

observation and survey may make perhaps a better revision than the routine method of going through the same portion over again, in the same monotonous way. "

An objection may be raised that local studies are not 'examined' and therefore are a waste of time. In the first place, it takes little time of the class because most of it can be done out of school hours. Secondly, in a way it *does* pay in the examination, even if a direct question on local studies is not asked. Words used for describing the activities of people, or weather conditions or topography of far-off lands, acquire a richer meaning after a series of local studies. The students come to have an increased ability to talk sense about the world around, and they do not make howlers. Examinations are by no means everything. If such work turns out boys and girls who can take their place in the world, the parents will certainly recognize it. A teacher reports that boys who were marked as truants, and poor at oral work were, after a year's work, declared to be sharp by the Inspector. The students, in fact, study the local geography, local traditions, or local institutions, not only for their own sake but also for fun, activity and joy. They are interested immensely in understanding the facts which condition their own lives. This is surely worth doing; and who will not agree that in such a study are the roots of true patriotism and international understanding in which the students should neither exaggerate nor underrate the importance of their own locality?

Local studies easily lend themselves to group-work. Surveys of streets, of municipal wards, each by a group of students of that street or ward—put together may give a picture of the whole town. Students here get an opportunity to compare the streets and wards with one another and appreciate, through discussion, both similarities and differences. The survey-work can be divided among the groups in another way also: (i) geographical setting of the locality; (ii) housing; schools, parks, museums and public buildings of the locality; (iii) public transport: roads, kinds of vehicles, etc.; (iv) public services: health, police, gas, electricity, post and telegraph, etc; (v) industries and occupations of the locality: each group may take up one aspect and study it for the *whole* town or village.

Such a study can perhaps be more successfully done during vacation time and after good spade-work, in smaller surveys.

To conclude, such local studies, more than anything else, provide the teacher with a means of showing the real unity underlying Geography, Nature Study, History, Civics and Economics in a programme of Social Studies. Art, Mathematics and Written Composition, too, lend a hand to help the students in recording and interpreting their environment. Excursions and visits help local study further.

9. Discussion as a Teaching Device

Problems, then *must* be discussed. Discussion, if properly organized, encourages personal effort. Discussion also helps to develop clear thinking and lucid expression. A good discussion can, therefore, become a source of real learning and a means of increasing understanding. Good discussion helps to throw more light on some controversial matter by a process of raising questions and considering, relating and synthesizing the points of conflict.

Much care and patience however must be used in deciding what to discuss and how to discuss it, and at what stage to introduce discussion as a technique of learning. This question is all the more important in the case of pupils with a low ability or in the case of those who have been subject to passive learning for a long time. While using discussion as a technique, the teacher should remember, for example, that the subject of discussion should not be too difficult or abstract for the group. When the subject is too difficult or is not worded properly in the language of the students, they will feel that it has nothing to do with them. They will not open their mouths, when they will not have the background knowledge about it and will be afraid that they will make fools of themselves, if they spoke. The teacher should, therefore, meet the discussion group on their own ground. If the 14 year olds are asked to discuss the annual Budget, or that "all Taxes should be Direct" the group will find the subject both too difficult and too abstract. On the other hand they might burst into talk if you ask them why we should pay taxes to the Government, and how we should see that the Government uses the tax-money properly. Or again, the class

may remain quite indifferent to the subject of India's export- and-import policy, but if it is put to them that 'India shall not import food grains from America' the group suddenly runs into argument.

The discussion may be more successful if the subject is based on some social matters, because then students become participants and assume responsibility. Unless they assume responsibility discussion may not develop at all. "By means of such debates conducted in a serious spirit, tolerantly, and so that each view is fairly presented, young minds can most safely discover those deepest impulses of their nature upon whose guidance they must ultimately rely.*

An important warning to the teacher for the success of a discussion is that he should not dominate the thinking of the students. He should remember that his function is to keep discussion alive. When the interest of the young students begins to flag, he should ask and raise questions which should make the students talk and keep the discussion going. At the end, he should give a good summing up so that the class feels that something has been achieved. The discussion, all the time, should be going towards constructive conclusions and should not be a waste of time.

If the discussion becomes difficult, particularly in the initial stage, it is good to start with a *symposium* in which four or five students speak each on one aspect of the problem defending it firmly and after good preparation. This may be followed by questions to be answered by the team, raising further questions; so the discussion develops. Frequent programmes of 'brain trust' (of course the brains will be from the class) and reporting in projects and local survey will give further opportunities to the class to ask questions and so train them in the technique of discussion.

In chapters VI and VII the emphasis all along has been on active learning rather than on passive lessons; on group work and activities which involve working with hands and the head, rather than mere classroom reading from textbooks; on learning by the students rather on teaching by the teachers; on

* Sir Perry Nummi: *Education, its Data and first Principles* Ch. XII, p. 150

interests, abilities and effort of the students rather than on learned 'notes' of the teacher; on school atmosphere rather than on equipment; on student growth rather than on examination marks; on learning from all resources rather than on learning from textbooks; on breaking down walls between the school and the outside world, on linking study with life. The teacher directs but does not dominate his students, he helps but does not render them helpless: that is the way of Social Studies; that should be the way of all education. The purpose of education is not to teach young people the unquestioning acceptance of any point of view but to encourage them to think for themselves. Its advice is: "search out all things and hold fast to that which is good." Its faith is that truth can prevail in personal as well as public life only if the members of a community are *trained* to think clearly, freely, honestly and courageously. And they *can* be trained through right methods of *teaching*. A change in methods has now become indispensable, because the aim of our education is not *mastery* of subject matter alone, but *participation* in democratic life also; secondly, because, education is not now the privilege of the upper class, but is open to all—a heterogeneous group whose educational needs could be met only by a change in the methods of teaching; thirdly, because now classes are large and a single teacher has to teach from thirty to fifty pupils at a time, in place of the ancient discourses between the teacher and his taught. A change—and a radical change—in our methods is therefore necessary if our people are to be properly prepared for a full life, and if our country is to be provided with a good number of self-reliant, active, and mature citizens to serve her. One may be cautious in trying out the new techniques, of course, but one must be courageous and bold.

Summary

1. Chapters VI and VII on Methods of Social Studies have shown that the correct formula for working through any syllabus is that of *orderly freedom* for students, in which they enjoy freedom with guidance from the teacher.
2. Such an arrangement requires a good deal of planning in advance by the teacher.

3. The teacher should adapt his methods to individual differences of students so that the bright, dull and the average—all have a chance to progress at their own pace. At the same time methods should encourage group-work in order to develop in students the qualities necessary for group-life and co-operative work. Hence the need for including in methods, group projects, assignments involving independent study link lessons by the teacher, discussion of Current Topics, and local surveys.
4. Benefit of projects could be reaped only by properly planning and co-ordinating them with link lessons and other activities of the class. With the help of all these the teacher should try to build up a coherent and absorbing course to suit his purposes.
5. With projects, independent study, Current Topics, local surveys, and other related activities the syllabus gets a new meaning: it consists of not only factual material to be studied and remembered but of all those *experiences* which bring learning so close to life.
6. It is only with improved methods and 'active learning' that the existing gap between learning in the school and life outside can be bridged; and the time has now come when it must be bridged, so that teaching in the school regains vitality.

CHAPTER VIII

EVALUATION IN SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Present Examination System

EXAMINATIONS are indispensable. Parents and teachers are naturally anxious to know how their wards are progressing and what their attainments are at any particular stage. This kind of check-up of the pupil's work at school is essential in the interests of all—the pupil, the teacher and the parent.

Examinations in our schools are both internal and external. Internal examinations are conducted by the school itself for promoting pupils from class to class, year after year. Promotions are based often times only on the pupil's performance at the annual examination. But recently some schools have started giving weightage to terminal and mid-terminal examinations also. The school leaving examination is an external examination and comes at the end of the school course of ten or twelve years. It is both selective and qualifying. It selects those who have completed the courses satisfactorily, for entrance to the University; and qualifies others to hold jobs—say of primary school teachers or clerks, library assistants, etc.

Both the internal and the external examinations are modelled on similar lines and are used to test mainly the academic attainments of a pupil, and do not concern themselves with other aspects, e. g., the social or the emotional development of the pupil. If examinations are to be of any real value they must test in detail the all-round development of the pupils and must use the necessary tools for doing so. The average teacher has hardly any idea of the different kinds of tools and techniques which are necessary for such an all-round testing of the pupils' progress. Even the devices that are used at present for testing the pupils' knowledge of facts are defective. The essay type questions that we use at present are, for example, neither objective nor reliable in their scores.

Wonderfully enough, this defective examination system enjoys great prestige in the society and counts very much towards the promotion even of the teacher. The pupil who passes

an examination of this type, the school that manages to get good results, and the teacher who is able to coach his pupils for passing it—become all worthy of respect in the society. Even the Education Department is under the spell of this examination system; the grant given to a school by the Department is influenced by the examination results. All the efforts of the school, the teachers and the pupils are, therefore, concentrated on preparing for an examination. Unless a subject or an activity is included in the scheme of examination, the teachers and pupils are not interested in it. The teacher, therefore, is rather interested only in the content of the prescribed syllabus and in those methods which secure easy success, than in those methods which develop social skills or social attitudes or else create interest in school work and make the pupils happy individuals. Thus from all sides, too much importance, is given to examinations. All our work in school to-day is completely dominated by this defective examination system.

This is not to say that examinations are not necessary. But they should be given their **proper** place in the school programme. Examinations ought to act as a stimulus both for the pupils and the teacher to reach well-defined goals and standards. Examinations should enable the pupils to strive consistently to reach the goal and attain standards recognised by all. To the teacher's work, examinations give precision and direction; otherwise the teacher may not know that he is working in the right direction. Therefore, the remedy is not to dismiss examinations altogether, but to reform them

2. Direction of Examination Reform

The main points of reform may be as follows :

(1) The (external Final School Leaving Examination should have a definite purpose, and the examination should be so constructed as to satisfy that purpose.

(2) Examinations, both internal and external, should be made more objective and reliable. The essay type tests should be supplemented by other types. Examinations should discourage cramming and encourage intelligent understanding.

(3) Examinations should measure not only the academic attainment of the pupil but also the development of skills, atti-

tudes and the degree of his adjustment. Thus, *evaluation* should take the place of *examination*.

(4) Promotions from class to class should be more determined by broad evaluation rather than by rigid examinations; more by the teachers who teach and know the pupils rather than by others and 'outsiders' who do not know the pupils; rather on the basis of day-to-day work of the pupil than on the performance at one or two final examinations.

In the first place, the teacher should be very clear about the specific purpose of any single examination, before he prepares his pupils for it. If a person who has passed the S.S.C. Examination makes a poor clerk or an inefficient accountant, the examination is not to blame at all. This power of turning out clerks is outside the scope of the S.S.C. Examination. What a clerk or an accountant needs in his job, is a fairly good general knowledge of people and things, rudiments of arithmetic, good handwriting, knowledge of typing, quick dispatch of work, systematic filing and above all a particular attitude of the mind. The S.S.C. Examination cannot measure these qualities. Every good teacher, therefore, should first decide precisely, what he wishes to measure, and then find out the techniques of constructing the examination.

Very often, either due to a heavy syllabus or wrong methods or other reasons, a pupil experiences a series of failures, whereas in his interest it is necessary that after every study unit, even after every lesson, he should experience a sense of progress and achievement. The teacher should understand that only success begets success. Every examination or test should therefore be so designed and arranged as to save the pupil from frustration and promote in him self-confidence which is so necessary for further study. A child who has learnt walking practises it, masters it and tests it too. Only then does he enjoy walking.

It is very necessary that the pupil co-operates in the evaluation of his own day-to-day progress. Very often he is opposed to tests and examinations because perhaps through them his weakness is exposed and the class comes to know how weak he is. This is not, and should not be the purpose of an examination. The pupil should always feel that the purpose of

the test is to show him his own progress and to help him where he needs help, but never to expose his ignorance.

The teacher, therefore, should never give ranks, and never compare pupils with one another. Each pupil should be placed in competition only with himself, and not with the rest of the class. After a test, the teacher should discuss the mistakes with the pupil and guide him to improve his performance. In this way alone can the teacher secure the co-operation of the pupil in the matter of his own examination. The teacher like a good doctor should be able to show the pupil that just as a medical check-up is in the interest of his health, so an examination or a test is in the interest of his academic progress. The young pupil is always naturally anxious to know how he stands; what he hates is his comparison with others and his weaknesses exposed to the class.

It is argued that pupils are not in favour of examinations or tests at all; that studies are meant to be enjoyed and examinations kill all that joy. This, however, is not very correct. If examinations were designed to help pupils to know about their achievement and show them how they can improve upon their performance, examinations will be always welcome. Examinations are hated and disliked because they are used—in a way—for failing pupils and grading them into good, average, and useless. No pupil is ever useless, and therefore he hates examinations.

It is often not realised that a pupil's performance in tests is very much influenced by factors other than study: by his health and physical growth, by his native intelligence and range of experience and by his social and economic background. The wise teacher should take into consideration these background factors before he is preparing to test his pupil's achievement.

If examinations and tests are to be as useful as medical check-ups, they should be frequent and more informal. Not one examination at the end of the year, fraught with all the horrors of supervision, suspicion and rigidity, but frequent tests as and when found necessary after the completion of a unit or two, as decided by the teacher and his class—should be the practice.

Tests can be fun, too. Not fun in the sense that the tests are extremely easy and every pupil is able to solve all ques-

tions without any effort. Rather the contrary. Every test should be sufficiently challenging and must encourage the pupil to put in effort in solving it; because, only in his effort to face the challenge does the pupil enjoy a sense of satisfaction and achievement. Tests could be fun, if there could be variety in the techniques used for testing in place of the traditional routine monotonous written essay-type examination. Modern research has given us a number of new techniques which could transform an examination paper into a chess-board for playing an intelligent game. Matching items, for example, as in the game of 'Braino' will be all fun and excitement for the pupil to test his own memory.

Tests and the marks (or scores) of the tests in themselves have no meaning or use. It is the interpretation of a test that makes it useful. The temperature graph of a town or a map or a date-line becomes significant only when it is interpreted; so also a test becomes useful only when the marks obtained by a particular pupil are compared with the highest marks obtained in the test or are interpreted to show the weak points and strong points of the pupil so that further improvement could be suggested.

All marks, of course, have to be reliable as far as possible. The same examiner should not happen to give different marks on different occasions for the same answer. Nor should different examiners give different marks for the same answer. Three things could be done to secure objectivity and reliability in examinations—one, objective tests should be used wherever it is possible; two, in the essay-type examination the same answer should be marked by two or more examiners and a mean score be obtained; three, the teacher should be very careful not to bring in his likes and dislikes in assessing pupils' work. A teacher should never, for example, say to himself: 'I know Ramesh is a quiet, helpful boy of the class and, **therefore**, he must pass; or that Gita is naughty and always irregular at school and, **therefore**, she must fail'. Pupils should be marked on the basis of their performance at an examination and not on the basis of the teacher's prejudice.

3. New tools and techniques

A progressive teacher uses all kinds of tests and devices—oral and written tests; objective, short-answer and essay-type tests and other techniques such as case-studies, sociograms and observations.

(i) *Oral questions* are a part of the teaching method and contribute to stimulate the mental activity of pupils. Oral questions can be addressed to a particular pupil to suit his capacity and requirements. The answer to the main question should be supplemented by the rest of the class thus drawing the whole class into discussion. The success of oral questions to some extent can be measured by the ability of the pupils to ask questions in their discussions and group reports. Besides the day-to-day class room teaching, oral questions can be used at least twice a year for testing the pupils' knowledge of laboratory equipment, or mathematical instruments or definitions and principles or, in general, their ability to face an interview and express coherently on a topic.

The oral test, however, is not perfect in itself. It is time-consuming and can become at times very subjective. The pupil perhaps can **write** his answers better and more accurately than express himself orally on the spur of the moment. The written test, again, provides a common measure for all pupils which an oral test cannot. The oral examination should therefore be less frequent and should be supplemented by written tests.

(ii) Among *the written tests* are the objective, short-answer and the essay-type tests. All tests really speaking have to be more or less objective, as far as assessment is concerned; but there is a definite type of tests called 'Objective Tests'. There is little in them for the pupils to write in answer to questions. Mostly the correct answers are to be recognized and ticked off. If there is written work, it is very little and confined to a few words or phrases. There are objective tests for several purposes namely for measuring intelligence, achievement, aptitude and so on. But they could be used most reliably for measuring knowledge of facts, understanding of concepts, and relationships. Objective tests are of course difficult to construct, but easy to score and more objective as far as assess-

ment is concerned than any other tests. For their limited purpose, therefore, they should be very freely and frequently used by the teacher particularly for periodical testing throughout the year after a couple of units are covered.

The short-answer type is a compromise between the objective type and the essay type. The answer to a short-answer test involves writing but not more than five to seven lines for each item; whereas on the other hand, its marking could be made very nearly objective with the help of a rating scale. For junior classes and in items involving short answers these tests are therefore excellent.

All pupils, and senior pupils particularly, must write *some essays* at least. The essay alone can test a pupil's capacity for sustained thinking and his ability to marshal facts and arguments in order to prove or refute a point of view. A pupil's ability to arrange facts collected from any source for the purpose of developing a thought systematically can be seen only in an essay, short or long. The difficulty in marking an essay objectively should not be an excuse for not allowing a pupil to express himself at length on a topic. Such essays may be few in number and not frequently, and every essay may be marked by two or three teachers to make the assessment more reliable and objective.

(iii) A pupil's progress cannot be entirely measured by tests alone. He *must be observed* from day-to-day in his activities: in the library and laboratory, in discussions and project studies in the workshop or art room, while he is preparing maps, models or reports,—and his abilities discovered in these activities (e.g. ability to use books, write summaries, prepare reports, prepare diagrams and maps, etc.) should be assessed by the teacher who wants to prepare a complete picture of his progress. Even the file of cuttings which the pupil has developed, the daily notebook he has kept, the homework and assignments he has completed, his leisure time hobbies and collections—all these must contribute to the assessment of his progress.

Objective tests are to be used for *day-to-day and* periodical testing of knowledge and skills; whereas essay-type questions should be used at *terminal and annual* examinations. Written examination should be supplemented by oral examination and

laboratory tests also *once a term*. Final promotion of a pupil will thus be determined by his work throughout the year. The use of different devices to measure the progress will be spread over the whole year. The teacher will also be able to give a much clearer picture of his pupil by this method than by mere one or two examinations. This is evaluation. Evaluation then is a much broader term than examination which assigns only marks and selects candidates for the next class on the basis of testing mere retention of facts. Evaluation tries to measure the pupil's aptitude, adjustment, social sensitivity, better relations with other individuals and the group and growth of sincere interest in social affairs. It is along these lines that the present examination system needs to be reformed.

4. Needs of Social Studies

From the discussion of objectives, syllabus and methods of teaching described earlier, it follows that in Social Studies, examinations and tests should be devised to find out how far pupils have acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes which they are expected to acquire through a programme of that subject. As often emphasized before, we want our pupils not only to **know** something but also to **do** something in order to acquire skills and to **be** something by developing proper attitudes. The teacher of Social Studies in particular will not be satisfied only with testing what knowledge his pupils **possess**, but will try his best to see what his pupils have **become** in their day-to-day behaviour, in their relation with people around them and in their attitude towards problems of life. This is evaluation.

The subject matter retained by the pupil or his ability to reproduce it in the examination is only a fraction of his total education. In Social Studies the teacher must look for pupils' ability to reason, argue, use and apply facts to new situations besides understanding and retaining them; and through several tests and techniques the teacher should try to assess the overall progress towards maturity, poise and a sense of responsibility developing in his pupil.

The teacher of Social Studies, therefore, has to be very careful about two things; what he wants to measure; and

EVALUATION

Evaluation is much more than mere examination. The real success of a programme of Social Studies can be measured only by regular evaluation with the help of detailed records and periodical conference with teachers and parents.



Above: The Social Studies teacher recording observations, test results and so on.

Bottom: The teacher in conference with headmaster, other teachers and parents.

then how to measure it. Under what he must decide what he wants to look for in his pupils as a result of the teaching of Social Studies. He should be interested to look for his pupils' development at least in the following four fields:

1. Pupils' knowledge of social facts and institutions; concepts, definitions and principles; knowledge of contemporary events through local surveys, direct studies and discussion of current topics.

2. Pupils' ability to use facts and understand relationships and apply knowledge acquired to new situations in order to solve social problems.

3. Their mastery of basic social skills: Skills to use books, maps and graphs; to read, comprehend and express effectively; to think clearly, discuss and decide sanely on social problems.

4. Their participation in activities of the school and the community outside; and the development of desirable attitudes through these activities.

In order to obtain satisfactory results in the above mentioned targets the Social Studies teacher should keep his eye constantly on three background factors:

1. The socio-economic background of pupils and its effect on their performance at school.

2. The pupils' relations with one another and in groups, and their social and emotional adjustment.

3. The school atmosphere (including the teachers' activities and attitudes) and how far it promotes democracy and pupils' personal growth.

Each of the above four fields has a significance of its own in Social Studies evaluation. It cannot be taken for granted that if a pupil knows the facts he will use them. Ability to use facts has to be deliberately developed and must be tested. Knowledge tests again must include questions on contemporary events also. Pupils must know what is happening in the world around them. Most of the pupils, otherwise, hardly read any newspapers at all. Those who read, never read much beyond the cinema and sports page.

The teacher should be anxious to see that when his pupils become citizens, they will not operate on hearsay, half-know-

ledge, and rumours in the midst of plenty of information supplied by books, films, radio and all the rest, simply because they have not developed the skills to use these sources to find out correct information; hence the need for testing proper skills at every stage.

There is no guarantee that a well-informed pupil will necessarily be an active or effective citizen. His very knowledge may be the basis of an attitude of superiority and become an excuse for withdrawing from activity or for ridiculing others, who participate in it. He may have all knowledge, yet he may remain inactive because he feels that his views are not accepted, or because his group has not enough influence to be successful in the activity or because he has a strong prejudice against people of other race and religion.

The change of attitude can be very well seen in a pupil who used to say, 'Why should I bother? Somebody will do it' — but now says, 'well, the bathroom is dirty and somebody has to inform the headmaster about it. It is my duty as much as anybody else's. So why not I do it?' Such a change of attitude is more important than volumes of facts stored in the memory; and it never comes simply by memorizing facts. The Social Studies teacher should be much concerned about such a change of attitude.

Let us take another instance. If a pupil is working to bring credit to the group rather than glory to himself, or in matters of group policy he is ready to accept the ruling of the majority, or he takes initiative to make his own contribution to the group success, or is ready to help others to make the work of the group successful — here is a sure indication of the pupil's willingness to serve others. The teacher should be on the lookout for this change in his pupil's conduct; through his activities, not in mere words.

Socio-economic status is bound to influence the pupil's attitude to the decisions taken on civic problems. Some people are able to appreciate expenditure or support it only when it concerns their own locality. They are opposed or are indifferent to any measures taken to improve other localities in the city. Such a narrow attitude is often the result of poverty and social prejudices.

5. A word about standards

Further, the teacher of Social Studies will have to be clear in his mind about the yard-stick with which he will measure his pupils' progress in knowledge, skills, behaviour and character traits.

There are three possible standards which the teacher of Social Studies can profitably use. Every teacher fixes up the minimum that every pupil must know in his subject; it may be arithmetic tables or dates in History, or products of a region, or qualifications of a citizen. Such a standard of requirements is fixed up by the teacher arbitrarily. But it is often determined by the teacher's experience and society's needs. Here the standard should be pretty high; because without a thorough grounding in these basic concepts, facts or skills no pupil may be able to profit by the rest of the studies or no teacher will be able to address his lessons to the class as a group. The teacher should not be satisfied with a 40 per cent pass but should expect 90 per cent score from all except the weakest. The standard set up by the teacher in testing the knowledge of basic facts, events, concepts, etc. must be very high.

But when the teacher is measuring the performance of the class as a group and is trying to determine the place of an individual pupil in the group, he should not adopt an *absolute* standard. The performance of a pupil should be measured in terms of what his class is able to do, and not by an absolute standard set up by the teacher. This applies to the testing of achievements in studies and in testing pupils' ability to apply what they have learnt. All achievement tests are of this kind; they are standardised from the achievement of the sample group. It is unfair for example to measure the achievement of a village school pupil from the interior of the Rajpipla forests with the performance of pupils from large towns like Bombay or Ahmedabad. Not only the physical difficulties of the school such as building and equipment will affect his performance but even his own socio-economic background and range of experience will alter the nature of his total achievement. The S.S.C. Examination does not take this factor into account when it tries to test 50000 to 80000 pupils by the same standard, the

result being that about half of them fail every year and face frustration. The teacher should remember that the performance of any individual pupil can be compared with that of similar pupils of his own group; of similar socio-economic background, intelligence and range of experience. Every teacher may have therefore to set up group norms suited to the area in which the school is situated.

In assessing development of attitudes and habits of work or changes in behaviour even group norms cannot be used indiscriminately. The pupil can be, and should be compared only with himself; what he was before, has become now, and what he can possibly become in future. The pupil's progress should be measured in terms of his own improvement. If the pupil is able to beat his own previous records in sports, he is happy; so he can be happy if he is able to show improvement over his own previous performance in studies. While behaviour changes cannot be *measured*, they can be evaluated because they can be *seen*; the pupil can be seen becoming more co-operative, more absorbed in studies, more responsible and so on.

The teacher of Social Studies will have therefore to be careful in setting up different standards for measuring different aspects of his pupil's progress, and will never make the mistake of converting every aspect into marks and reducing it to standard scores. If he does so, he is bound to fail in his task and his labour will be wasted.

6. Construction of Tests in Social Studies

Construction of Tests is difficult. Construction of objective tests is more difficult. That is perhaps one reason why teachers use the essay-type tests very freely and frequently. But with practice the teacher can construct better items for his day-to-day testing work.

To test pupil's knowledge of concepts, for example, the teacher should construct test items in such a way that the pupil will be required to give correct or the best definition from examples given, or give examples when definitions are given. The pupils should be able to know the difference between words having similar meanings: for example, State and Government,

king and dictator, convention and law, hills and mountains, thermograph and thermometer etc.

In order to test study-skills, the teacher should construct items to find out whether the pupils are able to recognise and use symbols and colours in maps or locate places on the map and the date-lines. The teacher can also construct test items to see how far pupils are able to interpret graphs, date-lines, sketches, tables or longitude and latitude.

Items could be constructed to see how far pupils are able to recognise, correct sequence, or give illustrations. Advanced group of pupils could be asked through written tests to establish causal relationships or select proper headings for description.

In order to know a pupil's progress in conduct or trait such as co-operativeness, the teacher should rather *note down his own observation* of instances where the pupil willingly cooperated with others in group work, celebrations, library work or in outdoor studies during visits and fieldtrips. The teacher can maintain a list of achievements which are the result of co-operative enterprise: charts, maps, study reports, study files, and the significant part a pupil has played in the achievement. Membership of co-operative organisations or willing participation in co-operative activities of the community outside the school also can be recorded. Teacher's judgement based on these observations and records could then be checked up with a rating by three other teachers say, literature, craft and games teachers. Test of attitude towards co-operation can also be tried if available. Even after all these devices are used what the teacher will obtain will not be and cannot be, an exact measurement of a pupil's co-operativeness in terms of marks or grades, but only a general indication of the pupil's progress in this or that direction.

In the same way the teacher can try to locate a pupil's interests by observing which books he reads, and reads during leisure hours; what he writes in magazines or speaks in informal conversation, or pictures he sees, or radio programmes he selects, or hobbies he undertakes. The teacher's own observations may often be more reliable than tests, provided the observations are properly and objectively recorded with instances.

The following are a few samples of different forms of tests for the guidance of the Social Studies teacher:*

(A) Students may be asked to write essays (short or long according to age and capacity) on topics such as the following:

1. Why do countries go to war?
2. What does a human being need to be happy?
3. Race superiority is a myth.
4. Scientific inventions and happiness.
5. Whether to import food or grow it?—fight solution for India's food shortage.
6. How to make human rights a reality? and so on.

(B) Here are a few examples of short-answer tests which involve some written work and can be used for testing pupil's understanding and application of facts:

1. If the judges of the Supreme Court were elected by the people?
2. If the members of the Lok Sabha were elected on educational qualifications?
3. Explain two important factors that have made Ahmedabad the Manchester of India.
4. Mention two points of difference between the Middle ages and the Renaissance.
5. What does man need to keep him alive?

Among the objective tests the following three are useful samples for the Social Studies teacher.**

(C) The following are examples of **Completion** or **Fill in the Blanks** type which can be easily used for testing specific information, but not for definitions.

1. Shah Jahan's son—became emperor of Delhi after him.
2. The British East India Company established their Kothi at Surat in the year—.

* More samples can be found in *Evaluation in Social Studies*: published by the All India Council for Secondary Education: DEPS: Asafali Road, New Delhi.

** Bean, Kenneth L: *Construction of Educational and Personal Tests*. Chapter III gives several samples of Tests (McGraw Hill, 1953).

3. Use the atlas and name the river valley in which each of the following is located:

Nasik_____

Srinagar_____

Benares_____

(D) But when the teacher wants to test pupils' knowledge of definitions, understanding of concepts and relationships the most useful form is the **multiple choice type**:

1. Which island near the coast of India is a country?
Ceylon, Andaman, Bombay.

(Here the pupils must know the definition of *country*)

2. The population of India is about (a) thirty crores (b) fifty crores (c) forty crores.

(Here correct approximation is required)

3. The two most important deciding factors of the summer climate of Gujarat are (a) soil of Gujarat (b) the Arabian Sea (c) high mountains of the east (d) altitude of the Sun (e) forests of south Gujarat.

(Here the pupils have to use discrimination, examine every option very carefully and select the best two.)

4. The route followed by Hieun Tsang in his travels of India was determined by (a) the physical features of the country (b) presence of large cities (c) time at his disposal to travel.

(Here the pupil is required to have an exact knowledge of both history and geography and understand relationship between them.)

For advanced pupils the multiple-choice may take even the following form:

5. If India wants more power for the development of her heavy industries what is the best way to have it?
- (a) harness tides and waterfalls for hydro-electricity.
 - (b) import more coal and oil
 - (c) set up more atomic energy plants
 - (d) cut down forests and use wood in factories
 - (e) ration coal, electricity and oil
 - (f) encourage cottage industries more than large factories.

6. Scientists are making dangerous discoveries. What shall people do to stop them?
- shoot all scientists
 - forbid scientists to work on dangerous discoveries
 - make all discoveries known to the whole world
 - set up a world government to control dangerous discoveries

Such items compel the pupils to understand the implications of every option thoroughly.

(E) The **matching type** is useful where not merely recall but recognition is desired or where pupil's ability to classify information or understand relationship (relationship between dates and events, or causes and effects etc.) is to be judged. To test knowledge of isolated facts therefore it is better to use the completion type.

A	B
1. A good citizen	—has no real powers.
2. The President of India	—can be dismissed by the Lok Sabha.
3. A Cabinet Minister	—should be 35 years of age.
4. The Governor of a State	—should know his rights and duties well.

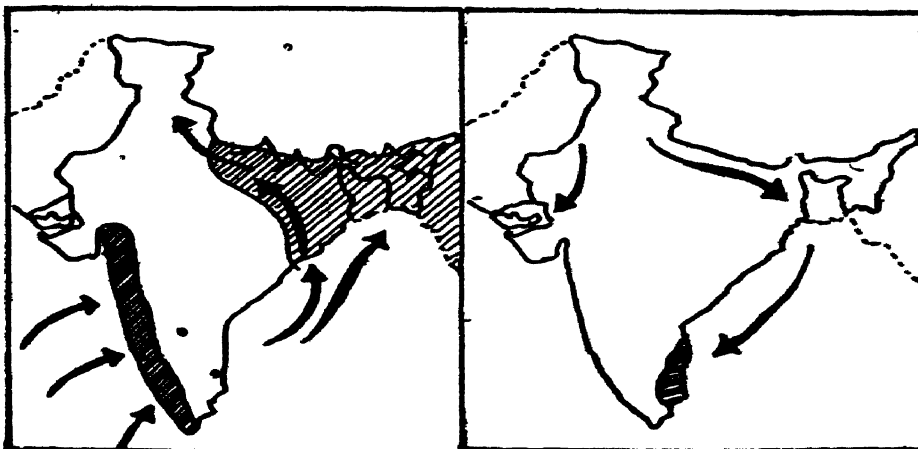
An important point to be noted in the construction of matching items is that every item should match with every option.

(F) The **arrangement type** can be used for arranging events according to chronology or towns in order of population or area, and so on.

(G) The following are statements in which the pupil is asked to locate the error of reasoning:

- When a man works for a long time as a Minister he is made a Prime Minister.
- Gujarat became a separate State because all the Gujaratis wanted to stay in Gujarat.

(H) Some Test items could be prepared in the form of problems: a problem situation which the pupils study and suggest



The above two maps show the direction of winds and rainfall in India. Which map shows the July situation? Which January? What is the direction of winds in each map? Which States receive rainfall in (a) July, (b) January?

a solution or a problem map (given above) which they interpret or in which they fill in required details. Some problems are:

1. The village of Bajwa uses partly well-water and partly water from the pond. There is an outbreak of typhoid. How is it caused? What is the remedy? How to prevent the recurrence?
2. Baroda had water supply for 100,000 population. Now the population has gone up to 400,000. What other arrangement can Baroda make for additional water-supply?
3. There is a sugar factory at Bardoli, but it does not get enough sugarcane for all the year round. As a result the factory is idle for four months. How shall the factory try to get enough sugarcane?
4. Study the map given below and say:
(Give map with latitude, river valley, hills, minerals).
 - (a) Where would you like to place a cement factory? A hydro-electric plant?
 - (b) The area has food shortage. Which food can it raise to meet the shortage? Where?
 - (c) Where would you place a health resort?
 - (d) Show the road which can be constructed from cement works to the hill station, and so on.

(I) Some of the forms mentioned above can be used for testing even attitudes. The answers, however, will not show whether the pupil is RIGHT or WRONG; they will indicate how the pupil thinks and what he feels about it. A few questions of this type may clearly show whether the pupil is thinking socially or personally, whether he is consistent in his response to similar problems and in building up judgments, or his approach to problems is haphazard. To the teacher of Social Studies these trends in the pupil's approach to life and problems are certainly very significant.

The following items are of the True False Type and the pupils' response may be 'agree', 'disagree' or 'uncertain'.

1. It is better to live a short but glorious life of a Babar than a long unhappy life of an Aurangzeb.
2. If all citizens were persons who went to school they will make better citizens.
3. If India used automatic machinery she will have no labour trouble.

Even a multiple-choice form can be used to indicate pupils' attitude to problems:

4. For ensuring wise decisions of policy it is better that (a) wise men of the area are in the legislature (b) a well-educated and experienced man makes all decisions (c) people are allowed to make decisions after discussion.

The pupils can be asked to comment upon slogans and common sayings which will certainly reveal their attitudes and interests: for example,

1. Every dog has his day.
2. Human nature is the same everywhere.
3. Voice of the majority is the voice of God.
4. Man is born free but everywhere he is in chains.
5. History repeats itself.
6. People get the government they deserve.
7. Man can conquer Nature only by obeying her.

These few illustrations have shown that the teacher of Social Studies should try to construct various types of tests and items. Further, the test items should be so distributed that they should cover the whole syllabus and not only a part of it. The different forms should be so combined as to enable

the teacher to assess simultaneously knowledge, skills, attitudes and qualities of character in his pupil. The teacher should be able to arrive at a total assessment of the development of his pupils' maturity in relation to his natural capacity.

7. To Ourselves Teachers

(i) So far we have taught in Social Studies (or even in History, Geography and Administration separately) only what we *could* test, and not what we *should* teach in order to prepare our pupils for life in the modern world. We have taught from the textbook and covered the syllabus from page to page and through month after month; we have 'done' projects, undertaken extra-curricular activities, and arranged excursions or (sometimes) local surveys and direct studies; but... but we have never tried to pause and assess the effect of each of these on the teaching of our pupils. In other words, after an activity, excursion or an experiment, we have never asked the question to ourselves: how far have my pupils now changed from what they were before the activity? Such evaluation, such *constant* evaluation of the pupils' progress has never been a part of our effort to teach and train our pupils. We have developed a kind of faith, but wrong faith, that once we have completed the syllabus and tested the *retention* of facts by pupils, the purpose of Social Studies is served and our pupils are bound to be good citizens.

(ii) Not only that, we have not seriously tried to find out the tools and techniques which could be useful to us in testing what we *must* test. We have not used, nor even experimented with, these new techniques and tests; otherwise we would have realised that the tools and techniques of evaluation improve only by use. No tests are born or manufactured perfect. Not only will the tests improve, ourselves teachers too will improve—improve our capacity to use tests, interpret them and so shall we learn to make our own tests; shall learn with the help of test results to improve even our teaching methods and the quality of our Social Studies programme.

(iii) Our school as a whole can more readily see the success or failure of its programme of training young pupils into useful responsible citizens by looking at the behaviour of its

pupils in the school itself and in the society, by the number of stones they throw at the school windows, or at buses and cars on the road-side; by filthy language they use in the school and in the neighbourhood; by the number and nature of offences the school and the teachers are called upon to check and punish. If we, the teachers and the school authorities, keep our eyes and ears open, we shall better be able to speak about the success or failure of school programmes, than merely repeat and glory in the examination results.

Let us then to our task of doing Social Studies the new way, the better way.

APPENDIX 1

BOOKS FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

I. GENERAL

[These books may help the teacher to understand the new approach to the problems of teaching in *General*, and of Social Studies in particular.]

1. J. Fleming: *Teach Them to Live*
(A synopsis of an eight-year study on how and why to change the methods of teaching).
2. Karl Mannheim: *Diagnosis of Our Times* :
(insists that a rethinking is necessary in education re: curriculum, methods etc. The teacher should now be not a 'school master' but 'life master').
3. H. R. Kersley: *Groundwork for Citizenship*
4. A. H. T. Glover: *New Teaching for a New Age*.
5. M. L. Jacks: *Total Education* (Kegan Paul)
6. *Democracy in School Life* (Report of the Association for Education in Citizenship) (OUP).
7. *The Needs of Youth in These Times* (Report of the Scottish Youth Advisory Committee: HMSO, Edinburgh).
8. *The School Looks Around*: (by Association for Education in Citizenship: Longmans).
9. *Towards World Understanding* (UNESCO).
10. *The Content of Education* (Report on Curriculum Reform—Uni. of London Press).
11. *What is Race?* (UNESCO).
12. Hemming J.: *The Teaching of Social Studies* (Longmans Green).
13. Dray J. and Jordan D: *A Hand-Book of Social Studies* (Methuen).
14. *Social Studies for Schools* (S. S. Committee of School Board, Victoria: Melbourne University Press).
15. *Report of the Secondary Education Commission*. (Government of India, 1952-1953).
16. *Evaluation in Social Studies* (DEPSE, New Delhi).
17. K. Yajnik: *On Projects in the Dynamic Methods of Teaching* (M. S. University Press, Baroda).
18. K. Yajnik: *On Cumulative Records* (M. S. University Press, Baroda).
19. *Geography Teaching for International Understanding* (UNESCO)
20. Carpenter: H. M. *Skills in Social Studies*
(National Council for Social Studies; Washington DC).
21. Mashruwala K.: *Foundations of Education* (Gujarati) Navjivan, Ahmedabad.

22. Kaka Kalelkar: *Education for Life* (Gujarati) Navjivan, Ahmedabad.
23. K. G. Saiyidain: *Problems of Educational Reconstruction*.

II. BOOKS ON SUBJECT-MATTER OF SOCIAL STUDIES :

1. Hartman: *The World we live in*: (Macmillans: New York).
2. CEM Joad; *The Story of Civilization* (A&C Black Ltd, London).
3. Stamp: *India, Pakistan and Ceylon*.
4. Barker: *Natural Regions of the World*.
5. Van Loon: *Story of Mankind*.
6. Anand Shanker Dhruwa: *Apano Dharma* (Gujarati).
7. *India: 1964* (Publications Division Govt. of India).
8. K. Mashruwala: *Gandhiji and Communism* (In Gujarati): Navjivan, Ahmedabad.
9. Pandit Sunderlalji: *The British in India* (Gujarati).
10. *Constitution of India*: (Govt. of India).
11. A. Iyengar: *Our Parliament* (Macmillan).
12. J. Nehru: *Glmpses of World History* (Guj., English).
13. Mahatma Gandhi: *My Experiments with Truth* (Gujarati — Hindi—English).
14. J. Nehru: *India Rediscovered* (OUP: India).
15. Radha Kumud Mukarji: *Glmpses of Ancient India* (Bhartiya Vidya Bhavan, Bombay).
16. K. M. Panikar: *A Survey of Indian History* (Asia, Bombay).
17. Sitaramaiya: *History of the Congress* (Gujarati; English) (Navjivan, AHD).
18. *Indian Inheritance*: Parts 1, 2, 3 (Bhartiya Vidya Bhavan, Bombay).
19. प्रो इन्द्र धम्मपद (हिन्दी) : राजपाल सन्स, दिल्ली.
20. *An Outline of American History* (USIS, Bombay).
21. Cyril S. Fox. *Physical Geography for Indian Students* (Macmillan-Lon).
22. Namowitz & Stone: *Earth Science* (D. Van Nostrand Co., New York).
23. Gokhale, Nair & Jhangiani: *Elements of Government*: (A R Sheth & Co., Bombay).
24. Rochm, Buske & Others: *The Record of Mankind*: (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston).
25. *United Nations and How it Works* (U.N. New York).
26. J. Mainwaring: *Man and His World* Bk. 1, 2, 3 (George Phillip & Son Ltd., London).
27. R. Desai: *Bhartiya Sanskriti* (Gujarati): (M. S. University Press, Baroda).

III. BOOKS ON APPROACH :

1. Reeves J. R.: *History through Famular Things*: 1, 2, 3 (University of Lond. Press).

2. *One-Approach Geography-History Series* (on Canada, USA, India etc.) (Oliver & Boyd, Edinburgh).
3. F. G. Pearce: *Struggle of Modern Man*. (OUP).
4. Young, Earnest: *Kingsway Social Geographies* (Evans Bros., London).
5. Masani: *Our India* (OUP) (in English, Hindi, Gujarati).
6. Masani: *Our Human Family* (OUP): (in English, Gujarati).^a
7. Esmond Wright: *The World to-day* (Modern Studies Series). (The House of Grant Ltd., London.)

IV. PERIODICALS AND ATLASES :

1. *National Geographical Magazine*, National Geographical Society, Washington DC, (USA).
 2. *Knowledge*: Paulton, Nr. Bristol, (Great Britain).
 3. *Historical Atlas*: C. S. Hammond Co. New York.
 4. Kini and Rao: *Pictorial Atlas of India History* (OUP).
 5. *School Atlas*: (Survey of India, Dehradun, 1964).
 6. *Economic Atlas of the World*: (OUP).
 7. Green: *Atlas of Indian History* (Macmillan).
 8. डेवीस: भारतीय ऐतिहासिक एटलास (OUP).
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APPENDIX 2

SOME SAMPLES OF PROJECTS

(1) Revision Project: Gujarati

Children of Class IX were asked to form themselves into six groups and revise the text book which they had completed, under six activities: (i) Collect all the incidents illustrating mother's love for her child (ii) collect pictures from Illustrated Weekly, Dharmayug etc. to illustrate hardships of travel on foot. (iii) Draw pictures to illustrate the settings in the poems done (iv) from newspapers or magazines collect pictures of ivory etc. about which they had learnt in the text. (v) write an essay describing their own experiences on the Dirty Habits of People. (vi) Make a clay-model of the Road to Amarnath. The students were guided in joining this group or that so that everybody has the chance to participate in some activity or the other. The principle is simple: each according to his need and ability. Every group consisted of about five to six children and each worked on its subject in its own way in some corner of the school, the teacher moving all the time from group to group observing, guiding, coaxing, correcting, appreciating. Members of the group discuss among themselves, correct and supplement one another. One could gather information, the next could write well, the third could sketch while the fourth could control and keep them all together. If one could do nothing else, he could atleast collect pictures. Yes, the success depends on the imagination and resourcefulness of the teacher. When the work of all the groups was over, in about a week, the whole class met, displayed in an exhibition what they had done and read out a report of how and what they had done. Thus each had a chance to come to the platform and address, a training indispensable in a democracy.

(2) Revision Project: Hindi

Class X revised the Hindi text-book completed by them through three activities: (1) "When We were Young": writing all about the childhood of Poets and Writers whose works they

had studied. (2) drawing three to four pictures to illustrate a story they had read, so that some other class will use these pictures in story building exercises. (3) collecting from the periodicals poems, similar in meaning or spirit to those they had studied.

(3) Revision Project: History

Class VII revised through group work the History course, (1453 AD to 1856) they had covered during the first session. Each group developed a date line of the period under study, drew a large map, showing the extent or territory under various rulers, and spot-lighted the main events. Six groups prepared six large charts each 30" x 40" and all the groups met periodically in the Assembly each to discuss its chart before other pupils of the class and the school. It was found that the work was not only useful to class VII, but helped other classes also to revise their knowledge of history. A great advantage was that some children of class VII who used to sit meekly in the class and suffered from a sort of inferiority that they did not know history enough, learnt the subject so well during group-work and from their class-mates that teachers present at the Assembly were surprised to see them reporting so confidently : after a few days one of the parents who is a judge of the District Court reported that his daughter had as it were a re-birth, so complete was the change in her attitude towards study. Confidence gained in one place influenced her attitude towards other studies as well.

(4) Outdoor Work: Arithmetic

Class IX had to study Banking as a topic in the Mathematics syllabus. The class was divided into six groups and they were sent to six different banks in the town with a questionnaire prepared earlier, to study through direct observation the banking system at work: to collect relevant information based on the questionnaire and bring specimens of forms etc. used in the bank. Each group spent about two hours in the bank and when they returned to the school they were filled with a spirit of discovery : they brought not only information on the

subject and studied the proposed working of a Bank, but, as the Bank staff complimented afterwards, it was a treat *to see how children asked questions, argued and behaved*. I think this is as important a part of child's education as the knowledge of facts. *The teacher* had ample opportunities to observe their interests and attitudes: e.g. who from the group asked questions most, who receded in the corner; the polite and the rude, the extrovert and the introvert, the quiet and the noisy, the idle and the industrious could be seen at once in such a study. Their skills to read, write, report could be tested in real situations. We are used to only addressing. Here children will be trained to listen, discuss, contribute, compromise and understand others.

(5) On Children's Composition Work

Children's composition and the accompanying correction work have been a problem almost beyond solution so far. Teachers complain that corrections are too many and teacher's work monotonous and heavy; that pupils commit the same mistakes over again; that discussion of mistakes is in vain and so on. We did it this way. It was class IX (13 year olds). We divided the class into six groups, so that each group had in it good, average and weak pupils. Each group was given a panel of subjects from which to choose one for a written composition after a few had been discussed in the group. The teacher moved from group to group observing, guiding, directing the activity. It was interesting to see each group developing the subject and each member struggling to contribute and thus enrich the topic. Weak pupils consulted the strong for spellings so freely, and even the strong felt enriched by the information the so called 'weak' had to give. Every group was lively. The group consulted the teacher on points they could not agree upon. They consulted books and dictionaries freely.

When completed, the teacher had to correct only six compositions, for all the members of one group had almost the same subject-matter. There were fewer mistakes because most of them were thrashed out and corrected in the group. All children learnt better because they learnt from one another: they would

not consult the teacher so freely as they did their equals. Our experiment was successful.

Objections were raised: the most obvious objection was that children copied from their friends. But most often the teacher dictates a letter or an essay which the children study by heart. This copying from the group is much better than cramming the teacher's material which often children do not understand. Besides, in group composition everybody copies from every one else: not one from the rest or all from any one. It is important that they discuss freely, consult unhesitatingly, develop the subject jointly. They not only learn better but develop useful attitude for healthy group work.

This attempt at group work is based on a sound observation that children are more ready to learn from their equals than from their teachers. The teacher's duty then is to teach less and enable the pupils more to learn by themselves. The teacher in our institutions dominates the situation too much by dint of his age, learning and height: if he really wishes that his class should learn from him, he should try to be one of the equals in the class. Keeping the children 'at an arms length' and maintaining 'a respectable distance' were idioms coined perhaps during the bureaucratic regime of the foreigners who had to govern this vast sub-continent from a distance. In democracy it is necessary to restore and affirm the dignity of the individual, so that he understands his importance, maintains his self-respect and assumes responsibility for his decisions.

(6) On Municipal Elections

The Municipal Elections were to follow after about a month. The teacher of class IX caught this opportunity to introduce the pupils to the 'vocabulary' of democracy and procedures of election. He drew their attention to what was appearing in the daily newspapers about parties, programmes, canvassing, selection of candidates etc. By way of introduction the teacher discussed the important place of the Municipality in a democracy, so that students should be interested in its composition and functions.

Each student of the class was asked to collect all available information about his own Ward: area, population, voters, problems of the Ward and so on. This preliminary information of

the city Wards was placed before the class, which was then divided into five groups of eight students each. The groups elected their leaders. The first task of the group leaders was to obtain the basic literature about the coming election from the Chief Officer of the Municipality and, with the help of it, check up what was collected by the students through individual assignments. The groups after a short study were equipped with maps of the wards (roads, schools, markets, hospitals etc. shown in them), election rolls and samples of ballot paper. The groups started collecting so much of propaganda literature coming out from the party meetings and newspaper cuttings, relevant to their study.

The election day came. Each group visited the nearby polling booths and had the first hand experience of voters' enthusiasm and behaviour, procedure adopted, and so on. The groups made notes of what they saw, took pictures and returned for discussion next day to the school. They studied the results of the election, the strength of each party in the Municipality and compared the picture with that of the previous year. Then the clever teacher invited the party leaders to the school to speak to the pupils on party programmes.

Such a study of the Municipal election was much richer than any with the help of the text book and the teacher. The students had variety in the methods of study, plenty of outdoor work, individual assignments and group work, and opportunity for expression both oral and written.

(7) On Five Year Plans

The students of class X took up the study of the Five Year Plans as part of their topic on "Economic Development of India after Independence". As background study the teacher gave them a talk on the economic problems facing the country as a result of World War II, the partition of the Country and the withdrawal of the British from India. The class was then divided into five groups each to study the development of five areas during ten years of the two Plans (1951-1961). These areas were (i) Agriculture and the food problem (ii) Development of industries and the unemployment problem (iii) The Problem of health and education (iv) The problem of leadership through commu-

nity projects, and (v) Resources for the Plans: taxation, saving and foreign aid.

Each group started collecting preliminary information on the topic under study from the textbooks and other books available in the library. Through the office of the school, they wrote to the Five Year Plan Publicity Bureau which responded with offering their services in this study by the school pupils. The Publicity Bureau helped in three ways: sold their publications at concession prices; gave leaflets, posters and photographs of plan projects free of charge; and arranged for film shows on various projects.

Each group after collecting data and information sat down to draw graphs and maps to illustrate the development in their area of study, during the decade of Plans. Each group reported, to other groups in a joint meeting every Saturday, the study it had made together with a display of charts and maps made and the books consulted.

Each group at this stage undertook a visit to the actual site of activity: a farm, an irrigation project, an industrial area, a community development centre, or a health centre. The group thus had a first hand experience of what changes were taking place in the life of the people there, as a result of the Plans. The group also got an opportunity to check up the information collected from books and reports with what they saw with their eyes.

The study thus completed came for criticism and questions before the whole school where other teachers were also present. The suggestions made were incorporated in the group reports. Some points which were not clear to the students (for example, the concept of 'earning foreign exchange', 'the function of the reserve bank', 'inflation' etc). were the subject matter of lessons by the teachers and talks by specialists specially invited for the purpose from the community.

When the study of the Plans was completed, the class arranged an exhibition displaying charts and maps of areas developed, models of new dams and new towns, and books posters or leaflets which were their sources of study. A short report prepared by the committee of the five group leaders gave an idea of how the Project study had begun and come to an end.

To the exhibition were invited teachers and students of the neighbouring schools, inspectors of the district and the parents — all of whom served in a body to evaluate the work of the pupils and support the activity with due recognition and applause. No marks, examinations or awards were necessary to motivate the pupils involved in such a well-planned and well-thought out project.

A SAMPLE DISCUSSION ON "INDISCIPLINE"

What exactly do we mean by indiscipline? If it means strike, most of the pupils, we have found, go on strike because some grown-ups in the society around do so. In such cases it always pays to discuss the strike with the students.

We had opportunity to observe the children of the University Experimental School at Baroda on two or three such occasions. They went on strike on the 'Goa Day'. Next day after the strike the meeting of the School Samiti was called to discuss the issues involved. The Samiti consists of about 30 student representatives elected from each class on the basis of strength, and takes decisions on all such matters after a discussion. The Samiti was almost unanimous that they were deeply grieved at the treatment of the Goa Satyagrahis; they had gone on strike and abstained from work as a mark of protest against this treatment. The Samiti was supported by the Sabha which consisted of all the students of the school. Next day after the strike a special meeting of the Sabha was called and a study was arranged of the different aspects of the Goa problem: the history of Goa, economics of Goa, importance of Goa, life of the people and the struggle. The study was illustrated with newspaper cuttings and pictures collected, maps drawn and books consulted. The top classes presented the report of the study in a week's time. In the meantime a questionnaire was circulated among all classes of the School and information was collected from pupils on questions, such as:

- (i) When you went on strike, did your father or brother also struck work?
- (ii) What other methods are there to show sympathy for the sufferers? Can you not help them with funds, social work, clothes?
- (iii) How did you pass your time on the day of strike?
- (iv) Did you consult your parents or teachers *before* going on strike? Why? etc.

The answers were tabulated and reported to the Sabha. The report showed that: a large majority of students did not know much about Goa and the problem; they went on strike because others did so; they could understand that such an approach was dangerous in democracy; they must take a decision after fully understanding the issues. Again, they wasted their time in cinema houses or hotels or games. Strike was, therefore, demoralising. Thirdly, they did not consult their elders, because perhaps they knew that they were in the wrong and would not receive the support of the elders. Fourthly, they could see that nobody in the society had gone on strike except students and mill workers — two irresponsible groups in the society. The grocer and the pedlar, would not have a meal if they went on strike. The doctor or a pleader or a banker would paralyse the society if they went on strike. Therefore strike should be the last resort when all constitutional methods had failed. Lastly, so many organisations, legislatures etc. sympathised with the Goa sufferers, but instead of going on strike they prayed, passed resolutions or collected funds. This was then the correct way of showing sympathy; and so on.

The questionnaire and the discussion, you may not believe, worked wonders. It helped them to study important current problems and corrected their attitudes; they took to social work and collected funds for Goa relief; they could see that in future they should think twice before going on strike. We could see the effect soon: the students around in the faculty went on strike on Patna firing of students but our students only prayed; during the Mahagujarat agitation the University faculties and other schools of the town were on strike but not our students. I cannot promise that they will never go on strike again in future. But their *readiness to halt and think* is a great change worthy of commendation. It is a real *discussion* in which teachers and pupils ask and answer questions freely. It does not become a lecture by the head or the teacher. Such discussions always pay and may guide the students in taking a better decision next time if a similar situation arises.

[Courtesy: The University Experimental School, Baroda]

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